THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

APRIL, 1798.

Letters and Correſpondence, Public and Private, of the Right Honourable Henry St. John, Lord Viſcount Bolingbroke; during the Time he was Secretary of State to Queen Anne; with State Papers, Explanatory Notes, and a Tranſlation of the Foreign Letters, &c. By Gilbert Parke, Wadh. Coll. Oxon. Chaplain to his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales. 2 *Vols.* 4*to.* 3*l.* 3*s.* *Boards.* 4 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 1*l.* 12*s.* Robinſons. 1798.

IT has been repeatedly and confidently affirmed, that hiſtory is uſually falſe. How far this aſſertion is true, is a point which merits inquiry. We rarely find, indeed, that the perſons who are chiefly concerned in public affairs are willing to undertake the taſk of tranſmitting an account of them to poſterity; and the compoſition of hiſtory, therefore, too frequently devolves upon thoſe who are inexperienced in politics, and who, having few opportunities of obtaining information at the fountain-head, are content with detailing the rumours of the times; or, if they relate acknowledged facts, mingle unauthenticated particulars with the eſſential ſubſtance of the narrative. Many hiſtories, without doubt, have thus been written; and their erroneous contents have been adopted by ſubſequent compilers, and by the majority of readers, as indiſputable truths. The friends or the deſcendants of ſtateſmen and miniſters, though poſſeſſed of numerous documents calculated to throw light upon different periods, have, for the moſt part, been too indolent to correct falſe accounts, or too regardleſs of truth and of literature to communicate their papers to thoſe who would make a good uſe of them. But, notwithſtanding the occaſional want of the beſt materials, every civiliſed country can boaſt of valuable hiſtories, authentic in the moſt important ſtatements, if not ſtrictly accurate in the detail. Theſe, however, may be conſiderably improved by the aid of ſtate-papers and private correſpondence, hitherto concealed from the eye of the hiſtorian.

Various collections of official and private letters, relative to the hiſtory of England, have appeared in our times, and have, as might have been expected, met with a favourable reception from the public. To this fund of political intelligence, the volumes which are here announced will form an uſeful addition. The ſtateſman whoſe letters they principally contain, acquired in his time a high reputation; and, though his character, even as a politician, has ſince ſuſtained ſome bold attacks, the candid eſtimator will ſtill conſider him as having poſſeſſed ſtrong talents and a perſpicacious mind.

The papers of lord Bolingbroke were ſecured, on his diſmiſſion from office, by his under-ſecretary, Thomas Hare, eſq. in the hands of whoſe deſcendant they now remain. Mr. Parke having ſignified his deſire of publiſhing them, the poſſeſſor indulged him with the uſe of the whole collection.

When we inform our readers that the papers now given to the world relate to the four laſt years of the reign of queen Anne, even thoſe who have little acquaintance with the hiſtory of this country will recollect the importance of the period. As it will, therefore, be unneceſſary for us to inſiſt upon that point, we ſhall immediately commence our ſurvey of the volumes.

Many of the earlier epiſtles are addreſſed to Mr. Drummond, a reſpectable merchant of Amſterdam, who regularly tranſmitted to our court intelligence of the preparations of the French. He alſo made a report of the proceedings of the duke of Marlborough in Holland, upon the diſgrace of the whig miniſtry. Bolingbroke, in anſwer to a communication reſpecting the duke, ſays (Nov. 28, 1710),

'If he comes home, and diſengages himſelf from the whigs; if he puts a ſtop to the rage and fury of his wife; in ſhort, if he abandons all his new, and takes up with his old friends; by the queen's favour, and by the remains of regard for him which are preſerved in the breaſts of ſeveral people, he may not only ſtand his ground; but, in my humble opinion, eſtabliſh himſelf in as lofty a ſituation as it becomes a ſubject to aſpire to: but if he imagines that people will any more be caught with general and inconcluſive diſcourſe; if he thinks that people will any more engage to him whilſt he lies under no engagement, nor gives any ſecurity to them; depend upon me, for once, he will find himſelf deceived. We are as ſenſible as he or any man can deſire us to be of the effort which the Dutch make; but we hope they will be ſo too of the weight which we have taken on ourſelves. Our trade ſinks, and ſeveral channels of it, for want of the uſual flux, become choked, and will in time be loſt; whilſt, in the mean while, the commerce of Holland extends itſelf, and flouriſhes to a great degree. I can ſee no immediate benefit likely to accrue to this nation by the war, let it end

how and when it will, beſides the general advantage common to all Europe, of reducing the French power; whilſt it is moſt apparent, that the reſt of the confederates have in their own hands already, very great additions of power and dominion obtained by the war, and particularly the States. You know me enough to be aſſured that I ſpeak this not as being cool in the war, or in any affection to the States. No man living is warmer for both than myſelf; but I would not willingly have theſe good words abuſed any longer; and, under pretence of carrying on the war, and pleaſing Holland, unneceſſary expences be thrown upon us, rapine and extortion be eſtabliſhed for ever.

'I had almoſt forgot to mention to you an inſtance of the admirable temper in which the great man is likely, at his return, to find his wife. Among other extravagancies, ſhe now declares that ſhe will print the queen's letters to her; letters writ whilſt her majeſty had the good opinion of her, and the fondneſs for her which her inſolent behaviour ſince that time has abſolutely eradicated.' Vol. i. octavo edition, p. 25.

In another letter, he thus ſpeaks of the ſame nobleman:

'My Lord Marlborough has been here now ſome time; I have been once with him, and he as often with me. It would be too tedious to recapitulate all that paſſed; in general I ſpoke my mind with all imaginable frankneſs to him, and could not forbear ſhowing him the difference between thoſe friends he once had, and thoſe whom he had abandoned them for. He ſeems more and more dejected, and I believe finds two things which he did not expect: the firſt, that his intereſt is quite gone in a certain place; and the ſecond, that he can make no breach in the church party, becauſe not one individual man amongſt them will truſt him.' Vol. i. p. 61.

Of the ſtate of affairs in May, 1711, we have this account, in a letter to lord Raby, afterwards earl of Strafford.

'We are now in the tenth campaign of a war, the great load of which has fallen on Britain, as the great advantage of it is propoſed to redound to the houſe of Auſtria, and to the States-General. They are in intereſt more immediately, we more remotely concerned. However, what by our forwardneſs to engage in every article of expence, what by our private aſſurances, and what by our public parliamentary declarations, that no peace ſhould be made without the entire reſtitution of the Spaniſh monarchy, we are become principals in the conteſt; the war is looked upon to be our war; and it is treated accordingly by the confederates, even by the Imperialiſts, and by the Dutch. I will not enter into the particulars which make out this propoſition, your excellency is enough apprized of them. I will only make one obſervation which I have ſeen verified in numberleſs inſtances, and which I never ſaw fail in any. If a method of carrying on the war was offered never ſo prejudicial to the intereſts of Britain in its conſequences, yet the general topic of

neceſſity prevailed. On the other hand, our allies have always looked firſt at home, and the common cauſe has been ſerved by the beſt of them in the ſecond place. From hence it is that our commerce has been neglected, while the French have engroſſed the South-ſea trade to themſelves, and the Dutch encroach daily upon us, both in the Eaſt Indies, and on the coaſt of Africa. From hence it is, that we have every year added to our burden, which was long ago greater than we could bear, whilſt the Dutch have yearly leſſened their proportions in every part of the war, even in that of Flanders, on the pretence of poverty; whilſt the emperor has never employed twenty of his ninety thouſand men againſt France, on account of the troubles of Hungary, which he would not accommodate, nor has ſuffered our vaſt expences in Italy to be effectual, on account of articles in which it did not ſuit with his conveniency to keep his word; and whilſt each of the other confederates in his turn has, from ſome falſe pretence, or from ſome trifling conſideration of private advantage, neglected to perform his part in the war, or given a reaſon to others for not performing theirs. From hence it is that our fleet is diminiſhed and rotten, that our funds are mortgaged for thirty-two and ninety-nine years; that our ſpecie is exhauſted, and that we have nothing in poſſeſſion, and hardly any thing in expectation, as a compenſation to Britain for having borne the burden and heat of the day; whilſt Holland has obtained a ſecure, and even formidable barrier; and, by my lord Townſhend's great generoſity, has a claim againſt our gaining any privilege or benefit in point of commerce, wherein they ſhall not be entitled to an equal ſhare; whilſt the houſe of Auſtria has every thing in hand, *à la Sicile près*, which they propoſed by the war; whilſt all the allies have had our annual tributes rather than ſubſidies, beſides particular advantages ſtipulated to be made good to them at a peace, and ſome of them are already maſters of greater rewards than their ſervices deſerve. From hence, in one word, it is that our government is in a conſumption, and that (how florid a countenance ſoever we put on) our vitals are conſuming, and we muſt inevitably ſink at once: add to this, that if we were able to bear the ſame proportion of charge ſome years longer, yet, from the ſame fatal conſequences, [*we*] ſhould certainly miſs of the great general end of the war, the entire recovery of the Spaniſh monarchy from the houſe of Bourbon.' Vol. i. p. 192.

In the ſucceeding month, the miniſter wrote in a leſs deſponding ſtrain.

'Our parliament is prorogued to the 10th of the next month; and, though we met full of reſentment for the ill uſage which we had received from the tyranny of the whigs; though there were various opportunities of attacking particular perſons, who deſerved no better at our hands; and though the majority of our friends in parliament, elected by as great a majority in the ſeveral counties, was unexampled; yet you find a repreſentation of ſome of our

grievances has been the harſheſt thing which we have done. No man has been forced from his ſeat, purely becauſe we did not like him; no perſon has been impeached; and, in a word, no whig-moderation has been ſhown.

'On the other hand, the beſt and ampleſt funds have been carefully found, and cheerfully given, the debts of the nation have been provided for, and trade ſo long and ſo ſcandalouſly neglected, has been begun to be thought of.

'I hope we have ſome degree of reputation among our allies, with whom you live. I believe I may engage that they ſhall neither have reaſon to reproach us for deſerting their intereſt, nor to laugh at us for neglecting our own.' Vol. i. p. 248.

The conduct of the Britiſh court in the concerns of the north of Europe, our ſtateſman reprobates in ſtrong terms.

'The affairs of the north are haſtening to that point of confuſion and danger which I have been expecting long; and which, in my opinion, is the natural, neceſſary conſequence of all the meaſures taken, from the treaty of Alt-Ranſtadt to this hour, by Britain and Holland. The guaranty of that treaty was, in the moſt ſolemn manner, and in the queen's name, promiſed. King Staniſlaus was, after an aukward manner, acknowledged; and our next ſtep was, to encourage Auguſtus to violate this very treaty, and, by his return into Poland, to revive the troubles of the north, and our own difficulties. An act of neutrality is thought neceſſary to preſerve the peace of the empire; and in forming this act, we go out of Germany, *de gaieté de cœur*, to cover Poland on one ſide and Jutland on the other, which we were in no ſort under an engagement to defend; whilſt we neglect to provide for the ſecurity of the Swediſh territories, which, by the treaty of Travendhal, we were under very ſtrong obligations to do. The king of Sweden receives ſome benefit by this act, but declines to ſubmit to it firſt, and openly proteſts againſt it next. We take no meaſures for obliging him to conſent to the treaty, or for putting him out of condition to break it; and by the ſpring of the year are frightened at his declarations, and at the apparent danger from Graſſau's army on one ſide, as well as from his irruption with Turks and Tartars on the other. This fear makes us go *bride en main* in the execution of the act of neutrality; and by that time we have ſufficiently diſobliged the Czar, the king of Denmark, and king Auguſtus, we find that there is more danger of having the neutrality broke by them than by im. In ſhort, the power of England is contemned, and breach of faith objected to us by each ſide in its turn; and we, who ought to hold the balance, and give the law, are every day bullied by our penſioners. By ſuch conduct we have, with great dexterity and pains, departed from the ancient and true character of Britain in many inſtances, and have rendered the nation little, whilſt the multitude imagine that we make a glorious figure. But theſe reflections

will do little good: and you and I, and every one who ſerves the queen, muſt apply ourſelves to get out of the preſent labyrinth, with as few ſcratches as we can.' Vol. i. p. 269.

The ſeparate negotiations with France, and the endeavours of the court of Vienna and the States-General to prevent the ſucceſs of the treaty, are diſcuſſed in many of the letters. The count de Gallas for the former, and the penſionary Buys for the latter, joined the whigs in their vehement oppoſition to the peace. Bolingbroke, writing to the queen in October 1711, makes mention of the views of theſe envoys.

'The great point which he '[*Buys*]' is to labour, is to convince your majeſty, that the method which you have taken is wrong, and that there can be no hopes of a good peace, unleſs particular preliminaries be, in the firſt place, ſettled. His drift is what your majeſty foreſaw, to break off the preſent negotiation, and to ſet a new one on foot, in the ſecret of which, from the beginning, his maſters may be, either with, or, which they like better, without your majeſty....

'I have at laſt in my hands the particulars and proofs of great part of the management of the count de Gallas, ſome of which my lord treaſurer did not long ago diſcover, and lay before your majeſty. Nothing can be more inſolent and ungrateful to your majeſty, the great protectreſs of the Auſtrian family, more brutal to your ſervants, nor more villainous in its own nature, in every part. I hope the ſpy he employed is turned upon him, that what was intended to your majeſty's diſhonour and prejudice, will have quite the contrary effect.' Vol. i. p. 419.

He afterwards affirms, that the 'whole drift' of the count's correſpondence with the court which employed him, was 'to repreſent the queen's word as not to be relied on, to repreſent her miniſters, in the groſs, as fools, knaves, and, in expreſs terms, as enemies to the common cauſe.'

Some of the tory leaders were apprehenſive that the queen would be ſo intimidated by the active zeal of the whigs, as to deſiſt from her pacific aims; but Bolingbroke had a good opinion of her firmneſs in that reſpect. He ſays to the earl of Strafford,

'Thoſe who oppoſe the queen's meaſures know, as well as we who purſue them, that the war is become impracticable; that the end which they pretend to aim at, is chimerical; and that they ruin their country by driving on this vain, gaudy ſcheme, which has ſo many years dazzled our eyes; but they venture this, and would ſacrifice more, if more can be ſacrificed, in order to regain dominion, which nothing can give, at leaſt ſecure in their hands, but national diſtreſs. The true, real, genuine ſtrength of Britain, belongs to other people; their power is built upon an adventitious ſtrength, created by the public neceſſity, and nurſed up by the advantage which dexterous men have taken, and which they will be able to take no longer when the war ceaſes.

'Now my pen is in my hand, I cannot forbear ſaying, that I ſincerely think this the moſt important conjuncture, that any prince has been in, ſince the time that your excellency's anceſtor was attacked by the faction which begun with him, and did not conclude their tragedy even with his maſter. That king ſealed the warrant of his own execution, when he gave up his ſervant, and our miſtreſs has no way of ſecuring herſelf, but exerting her power to protect her miniſters, who have reſcued her from domeſtic bondage, and are going on to relieve her from foreign oppreſſion. I will never deceive you, my lord, I would not do it, even in the moſt pardonable, the moſt agreeable manner, by concealing real dangers, and giving falſe hopes; you may, therefore, depend upon me when I tell you that I think all ſafe, and the queen determined.' Vol. ii. P. 73.

He expreſſes great diſguſt (March 7, 1712) at the countenance given by the elector of Hanover to the ſchemes of the whigs.

'The elector had till this winter, behaved himſelf ſo that the whig and tory equally courted him, and had equal expectations from him: he has now placed himſelf at the head of a party, and that too (whatever he is made to believe) by great degrees the leaſt at this time, and, whenever we ſhall have got rid of our war, likely to be ſtill weaker; the landed intereſt will then riſe, and the monied intereſt, which is the great ſupport of whiggiſm, muſt of courſe decline. There is ſomething unaccountable in this matter; the elector will be one time or other undeceived: I pray God it may be ſoon!

'The queen ſurely leaves nothing undone which is in her power to bring him to a right notion of the true ſtate of Britain, and of his own intereſt. My Lord Rivers went firſt to him, and opened, with the greateſt confidence imaginable, all the views which her majeſty had, the grounds of her proceedings, and in a word, the whole ſecret of her adminiſtration; the return made to this mark of friendſhip, was ſending his miniſter hither, to aſſociate with the ſervants which the queen thought fit to diſgrace, to join in open defiance to her meaſures, and even to appeal to the nation in oppoſition to their ſovereign. Theſe affronts and indignities, our good miſtreſs is however willing to overlook, and once more try whether the film can be taken off from the elector's eyes, and whether he will give ear to that true and diſintereſted repreſentation of things, which, in her majeſty's name, Mr. Harley is intruſted to lay before him.' Vol. ii. P. 210.

In the progreſs of the negotiation with the court of Verſailles, the marquis de Torcy is introduced as a frequent correſpondent; and the letters of this miniſter have an air of ſincerity, conſonant with that of the Britiſh ſecretary. Indeed,

from the eagerneſs of the queen for a pacification, there was little reaſon for him to have recourſe to fineſſe and artifice.

A private note from the marquis we will tranſlate, as we are not pleaſed with the Engliſh dreſs which has been given to it by the editor.

'I perceive with great pleaſure, from the letter which you did me the honour to write to me with your own hand, that you are ſo far perſuaded of the queen's firmneſs, as not to entertain a doubt of the removal of all difficulties with which the concluſion of peace is threatened by a hoſtile faction in your country. The proceedings of that party, the apparent ſucceſs of ſome of its meaſures, and the intrigues of its emiſſaries in foreign countries, are indeed calculated to alarm thoſe who have not had opportunities of becoming perfectly acquainted with the interior of England, and who therefore judge of the nation from falſe appearances. You have diſpelled, however, all my apprehenſions that were excited by current reports; for you will not be diſpleaſed to find that I take a lively intereſt in every thing which concerns you and your friends, and that I am conſequently uneaſy while your enemies have any ſhare of power. As you can judge, better than any perſon, how long it may be prudent to leave in their hands the power of doing miſchief, and of avenging their own cauſe, I ſhall not preſume to give you any advice, but ſhall content myſelf with aſſuring you, that the king's plenipotentiaries are accurately informed of his views and intentions, and have received ſuch inſtructions as will tend to expedite the negotiation. I truſt, therefore, that it will meet with ſpeedy ſucceſs; and that the Britiſh plenipotentiaries will, on their part, ſtudiouſly promote the accompliſhment of this great work.' Vol. ii. p. 153.

When the treaty had made a conſiderable progreſs, Bolingbroke communicated the following order to the duke of Ormond, who had ſucceeded Marlborough in the command of the army.

'Her majeſty, my lord, has reaſon to believe that we ſhall come to an agreement upon the great article of the union of the two monarchies, as ſoon as a courier, ſent from Verſailles to Madrid, can return; it is therefore the queen's poſitive command to your grace, that you avoid engaging in any ſiege, or hazarding a battle, till you have farther orders from her majeſty. I am, at the ſame time, directed to let your grace know, that the queen would have you diſguiſe the receipt of this order; and her majeſty thinks that you cannot want pretences for conducting yourſelf ſo as to anſwer her ends, without owning that which might, at preſent, have an ill effect, if it was publicly known *.

'* This order formed the principal article in Bolingbroke's impeachment; it ſeems to be now generally agreed, that her majeſty determined upon the meaſure without conſulting her council.'

'The queen cannot think with patience of sacrificing men, when there is a fair prospect of attaining her purpose another way; and besides, she will not suffer herself to be exposed to the reproach of having retarded, by the events of the campaign, a negotiation which might otherwise have been as good as concluded in a few days.' Vol. ii. p. 320.

Another letter to the new general contains these passages:

'I observe by your grace's letters, that you have been pressed, I may say indecently, to give an account what orders you had received. The Dutch minister questioned me in much the same manner, but I answered him, by demanding what the private instructions are which the states have given to their deputies and generals.

'It is probable that mareschal de Villars may receive the orders which will be sent him from Versailles, within a day after this letter may come to your hands. Your grace will therefore lose no time in acquainting him, that you are in expectation of receiving from his court that which must determine your proceedings; and that, according to the king's resolution, you are either to look upon yourselves on both sides as freed from any restrictive orders, and in full liberty of acting against each other, or that you are openly to declare for a cessation, whilst the best means possible are used to prevail on the rest of the allies to do the same; but the queen's declaration, however, is to be positive.

'Your grace is, to be sure, informed of the endeavours used by the States to debauch the troops in her majesty's pay from her, and to borrow money for carrying on their subsistence. She makes no doubt but your grace is on your guard, and that you will take the best precaution to make them steady to her majesty's interest, and to prevent any surprize. I shall not fail to let the several ministers know, in what manner the queen will resent any step of this kind; and I believe your grace will do well to speak the same language to the generals of the foreign corps paid by the queen. Among other things they will, I believe, reflect twice on the arrears which are due to most of them.' Vol. ii. p. 371.

As we have now sufficiently extended this article, we will postpone our consideration of the third and fourth volumes.

Observations relative chiefly to the Natural History, Picturesque Scenery, and Antiquities, of the Western Counties of England, made in the Years 1794 *and* 1796. *Illustrated by a Mineralogical Map, and sixteen Views in Aquatinta by Alken. By William George Maton, M. A. Fellow of the Linnæan Society. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 16s. Boards.* Robson. 1797.

WE were highly pleased to find that the beautiful scenery of the west was to be described and illustrated by a scientific

traveller, and by the tinted views of Alken. From an early acquaintance with many of the ſcenes, we anticipated great pleaſure in again going over them with thoſe ornaments which taſte and art could ſupply, and with ſuch information as ſcience could afford on diſtricts which ſhe had not yet publicly enlightened. Perhaps our expectations were too great: it is certain that they have not been anſwered. The views are partially choſen, and chiefly relate to ancient remains. Proſpects the moſt embelliſhed have been imperfectly deſcribed; and ſcenes the moſt pictureſque have been neglected. The travellers ſeem to have exerted little care in procuring proper local aſſiſtance, and to have credulouſly adopted caſual intelligence without due inveſtigation. They appear to have been cold haſty obſervers, and (even in their own line, that of natural hiſtory) to have glanced only at what by chance met their eyes. Upon what we have occaſionally reprehended in others, we muſt alſo now animadvert. When the title ſpeaks of antiquities, we can only underſtand the preſent ſtate of the remains of ancient grandeur or ſtrength: their hiſtory ſhould remain in the writings of the original authors, and not be obtruded on the readers of tours, or at leaſt ſhould be very ſparingly given.

With regard to the *route* of our touriſts, we find that they proceeded from Saliſbury to Poole, thence through the ſouthern parts of the ſhire of Dorſet into that of Devon, from Exeter to Plymouth, thence to the Land's-end, back to Plymouth by the way of Launceſton, acroſs Devonſhire to Axminſter, and afterwards to Dorcheſter. In the ſecond tour, they paſſed through the northern parts of Dorſet and Devon, croſſed Somerſetſhire to Bath, and returned through Shafteſbury and Blandford to Saliſbury.

We meet with nothing particularly intereſting in the earlier parts of the tour. The travellers ſeem, at times, to diſclaim the uſually idle reference of every uncommon rock or hill to the labours of the Druids, though they occaſionally fall in with the rêveries of antiquaries on this ſubject. Aggleſtone, as they ſeem to intimate, may readily be accounted for by the agglutinating power of moiſt iron ſand, and its form referred to the gradual loſs of the leſs ſolid materials around. At Poole we ſuſpect they would have 'gained neither credit nor reſpect for their pains,' even from mineralogiſts, when employed in collecting ſpecimens from the rocks, depoſited by ſhips as ballaſt. Foſſils, unleſs of extraordinary beauty or rarity, are ſeldom valuable but as connected with the ſurrounding ſtrata.

The coaſt of Dorſet is well deſcribed; and the little epiſode of the peculiar theory, with a biographical ſketch, of Mr. Huſſey, is very intereſting.

The country about Weymouth is deſcribed with ſome accu-

racy; but the dreary hills on the left are no inconsiderable draw-back from the beauty of the bay, and force the eye to rest on the vacant expanse of water. Beautiful indeed must be the bay — a beauty chiefly derived from its form — to fill the mind, with so little assistance from passing vessels or from the neighbouring scenery. The ride round Portland might, we think, have furnished Mr. Maton with more ample remarks, and more appropriate descriptions. The Euphorbia Portlandica, and the Lavateria Arborea are the only plants which occurred to him or his companions. The former, indeed, at the season * in which they seem to have travelled, is obtrusive †, and the latter not uncommon. The Chesil bank has not often been described; and, in this work, we have the following account of it.

'The Chesil-bank is one of the most extraordinary ridges, or shelves, of pebbles in Europe, and perhaps the longest, except that of Memel, in Polish Prussia. I have mentioned before that its length is supposed to be about seventeen miles. Its breadth is in some places nearly a quarter of a mile. The pebbles are so loose that horses' legs sink almost knee deep at every step, but a traveller of any curiosity should by no means neglect to examine the productions of this pebbly desart. With regard to the pebbles themselves, they in general consist of white calcareous spar, but there are many of quartz, jasper, chert, and a variety of other substances. It is worthy of remark, that they gradually diminish in size the nearer they approach the main land, being for the most part very little larger than horse-beans towards Abbotsbury, though at the other end of the bank they are from one inch to three inches in diameter. We found the edge to the right by far the firmest, and easiest for our horses, especially as the pebbles were somewhat bound together by the marine plants growing in patches along the water side. Among these we observed *salsola fruticosa*, and *inula crithmifolia*, the showy yellow blossoms of which seemed to form a long line of golden fringe. The beautiful *pisum maritimum* (sea-pea) grows in solitude among the loosest pebbles, on the highest part of the bank. We had no reason to complain of a want of amusement: — the red gleam of a setting sun on the distant hills; the gay notes of busy hay-makers on the opposite side of the river; the various cries of timorous water-fowl; the murmur of the billows against the bank — was sufficient to attract our attention; and these together formed an assemblage of circumstances very impressive to musing minds. Even a solitary shed, and a few lobster-traps, were, in such a desart, interesting objects, and afforded something like that species of pleasure which the philosopher Aristippus must have felt, when he cried out "*Hominum vestigia video.*"

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* July and August.

† We collect this circumstance from the time of flowering of the plants which they describe in bloom.

'Amidst the great variety of water fowl that found undisturbed haunts on the eastern side of the bank, we saw the swan in its wild state (*anas cygnus ferus*, of Linnæus), and were enabled to assert with confidence (what has been much doubted) that it is an inhabitant of Dorsetshire. Within two miles of Abbotsbury, we saw multitudes of the tame swan (*cygnus domesticus*)

"proudly rowing their state,"

(to use the words of Milton) and were confirmed in our preceding decision by an opportunity of comparing.—There cannot be a more elegant figure in all nature than a swan in the act of swimming, though so ungraceful a bird when out of the water:—no constrained, stiff motions—no aukward position of the limbs, but every attitude easy, and every transition beautiful.' Vol. i. p. 66.

In their progress they appear to have moved hastily on, and not to have inquired about what has been done to supply the old harbour at Bridport, or to have looked up to perceive the capital of Devonshire, which they might easily have seen from the adjoining hill, though 'they gazed in vain for it, till they arrived in the very suburbs.' Thence they made an excursion to Upton Pyne, to observe the manganese mine, and to Thorverton, to examine the quarry. These are well described; but, had our travellers been in less haste, they might have seen the Heavy-tree quarry in their road to Exeter; and they would not then have hazarded the assertion, that the latter stone resembles the former.

With equal celerity they proceeded to Teignmouth, looking at Powderham, and unconscious of the beautiful scenery of Mamhead in that neighbourhood. They learned, however, two curious *facts* in this part of their journey;—that women not uncommonly guide the plough in Devonshire, and that the lands about Star-Cross were two years ago covered with furze. Their informers, observing their eager curiosity, must have trifled with them egregiously; for nothing can be more distant from truth than each remark. At Teignmouth, the cliffs overhanging the sea are far from having a picturesque appearance: their outline is broad, heavy, unvaried, and unpleasing. The picturesque rocks are between Teignmouth and Dawlish; and, though our author professes to 'follow the southern coast,' he unfortunately left it, and lost one of the most agreeable retirements for sea-bathing in the west.

His want of information was unfortunate in another view: he was within a few miles of the calcareous country, where a great variety of the most curious English marbles are dug, which he passed without seeing; and he describes only one of the coarsest kind, at Chudleigh. The clays in the neighbourhood of Teignmouth, the great support of the Eng-

liſh potteries, are unnoticed by him; but the Bovey coal-works are not neglected. Had he put, however, a piece of the coal into the fire, or followed it to the adjoining cottages, he would have found it to be eſſentially different from charred wood; and, if he had attended to the horizontal direction of the fibres, the angle they form with the ſurface, and the materials in which they were embedded, he would at leaſt have heſitated in ſaying that 'the Bovey coal has evidently been wood.'

Berry-Pomeroy caſtle, and the whole country around, to Dartmouth and Plymouth, are ſurveyed with accuracy. The vegetable and mineral riches of thoſe parts, however, do not ſeem to have made a very ſtrong impreſſion on our travellers. In Cornwall, they were much more fortunate in companions, or in information: and their accounts of the mines, &c. though ſlight, are often intereſting, and, for general readers, ſatisfactory. We cannot give an account of the country, but ſhall extract deſcriptions of two of the mines.

'Polgooth, one of the richeſt and largeſt tin-mines in the county, if not in the world, is ſituated about two miles ſouth-weſt from St. Auſtle. The ſurrounding country is for many miles bleak, barren, and tedious to the eye.—I ought not indeed to call it barren, for its bowels contain riches, though, like the ſhabby mien of the miſer, its aſpect does not correſpond with the hoards.

'There are no leſs than fifty ſhafts in Polgooth; twenty-ſix are ſtill in uſe, with as many horizontal wheels, or whims. The main vein of ore, which is about ſix feet thick, runs from eaſt to weſt, and dips to the north at the rate of about ſix feet in a fathom. Towards the eaſt it divides into two branches, and there is another that cuts the former nearly at a right angle, and conſequently runs north and ſouth, dipping to the eaſt. The exact extent of this mine has not been aſcertained, but we were informed that it has afforded tin the full length of a mile. The depth of the engine-ſhaft is about one hundred and ten fathoms, and this machine draws up, at each ſtroke, a column of water thirty feet in height, and fifteen inches in diameter. There is alſo an excellent overſhot water-engine, with a wheel thirty-ſix feet in diameter. The ore is diſſeminated in general through a matrix of caple*, accompanied with yellow cupreous pyrites, and ſometimes ferrugineous ochre. It is of the vitreous kind, but rarely found in cryſtals;—the colour for the moſt part greyiſh brown. The country† of the ore is chiefly

'* It muſt be remembered that I now uſe the terms of the miners, which are commonly very vague. *Caple* is as vague an one as any. Sometimes it is given as a general term to the cruſt, or coating of the ore; ſometimes to an argillaceous ſubſtance, and ſometimes to a quartzoſe one. The miners are directed ſolely by the *externa facies* of a mineral, and even about the name applicable to that ſcarcely two can agree. They have pretty generally determined, however, that caple muſt be black, and at Polgooth they mean a heavy kind of quartz which is perfectly opake, cloſe textured, and contains a large portion of argill.'

'† By the *country* of an ore the miners mean the ſoil, or ſubſtance, through which the veins of ore run, or in which they are imbedded.'

a greyiſh killas, but we obſerved large heaps of what the miners call elvan ſtone* about the ſhafts. This ſubſtance, they told us, formed a croſs courſe, and drove the vein of tin ſeveral feet out of the direct line. Polgooth is ſaid to have yielded a clear profit of one thouſand five hundred pounds per month, and Borlaſe mentions that in his time the proprietors gained twenty thouſand pounds annually, ſeveral years following. Upwards of ſeventeen thouſand pounds were expended, however, before the mine yielded one ſhilling.' Vol. i. P. 155.

'We were impatient to ſee the wherry mine (mentioned before) ſituated in the bay, about half a mile beyond Penzance. The opening of this mine was an aſtoniſhingly adventurous undertaking. I have never heard of one ſimilar to it in any other part of the world. — Imagine the deſcent into a mine through the ſea; the miners working at the depth of ſeventeen fathoms only below the waves; the rod of a ſteam engine extending from the ſhore to the ſhaft, a diſtance of nearly one hundred and twenty fathoms; and a great number of men momentarily menaced with an inundation of the ſea, which continually drains in no ſmall quantity through the roof of the mine, and roars loud enough to be diſtinctly heard in it! the deſcent is by means of a rope tied round the thighs, and you are let down in a manner exactly the ſame as a bucket is into a well; a well indeed it is, for the water is more than knee-deep in many parts of the mine. The upper part of the ſhaft reſembles an immenſe iron chimney, elevated about twelve feet above the level of the ſea, and a narrow platform leads to it from the beach: cloſe to this is the engine-ſhaft, through which the water is brought up from below. Tin is the principal produce of the wherry-mine; it is found diſperſed (in ſmall, indurated, glaſs-like lumps, of a blackiſh colour) in a ſubſtance reſembling the elvan of Polgooth, but much more compact in texture, and of the nature of a porphyry. Some of the tin is found mixed with pyritous copper, which is in a quartzoſe matrix. A black hard killas forms the upper ſtratum of the mine, and below it appears the ſubſtance mentioned before. The inclination of the lode is towards the north, about ſix feet in a fathom, and its breadth is thought to be no leſs than ten fathoms. The ore is extremely rich.' Vol. i. P. 208.

As a ſpecimen of the deſcriptive talents of Mr. Maton, we ſhall prefer the ſhort account of Land's-end, to the longer and more interrupted deſcription of the gigantic features of St. Michael's mount.

'* This term is given to ſubſtances perfectly different in their compoſition, and we could never obtain a ſatisfactory definition of an elvan ſtone. The elvan of Polgooth, however, is a greeniſh, or cinereous granite, compoſed of quartz, mica, felt-ſpar, and ſome ſteatites intimately blended. It is ſometimes found in a decompoſing ſtate, when it aſſumes a pale yellowiſh colour, and a porphyritic texture.'

'After croſſing ſome rocks, which we at firſt conceived to be the final barriers to our progreſs weſtward, we came to the grand promontory that projects into the Atlantic farther than any other part of the Corniſh coaſt. This is the Land's-end — a very ſtriking ſpot, both on account of the vaſtneſs of the objects it preſents, and the convulſed features of the ſurrounding country. There is a cavern underneath, and here the waves of the ocean burſt and bellow with a tremendous fury. The huge detached piles of rocks lying juſt off the land muſt have once adjoined to it, and we may imagine the latter to have been once connected with the diſtant iſles of Scilly. Theſe iſles, though nine leagues from us, were viſible to the ſouth-weſt, appearing like a cluſter of cliffs, round which the Atlantic rolled in a mighty horizontal curve. Juſt off the Land's-end, on a large rock called the armed knight, ſtands a light-houſe, the windows of which, though almoſt one hundred feet in height, have often been broken by the ſpray in a tempeſt!' Vol. i. p. 216.

Mr. Maton returned along the northern coaſts of Cornwall; and he has given a very good account of the mines in that diſtrict, the direction of the lodes, the modes of digging, ſmelting, &c. This part, though valuable to the mineralogiſt, is leſs intereſting to other readers. The whole picture is gloomy and diſtreſſing in a high degree. The air clouded with ſmoke — the ground bare, black, with ſcarcely a trace of vegetation — inhabitants pale, weak, and emaciated, from the deleterious fumes — lead us to turn our eyes to more pleaſing ſcenes. Theſe, however, do not ſoon occur.

The account of Plymouth is not incorrect. In that of Mount Edgecumbe, the author does not ſeem to have felt, with ſufficient enthuſiaſm, the delightful ſcenery of the park, or, with ſufficient diſguſt, the barren, dreary, uniformity of the land proſpect.

The deſcription of the country towards Dartmoor leads to an account of the tin and copper mines of Devonſhire, as well as of the different inſtitutions of the Devonſhire miners. Lydford water-fall is imperfectly and coldly deſcribed; the view from Lydford bridge, with more animation. Nothing, particularly new, occurs in the return to Saliſbury.

The ſecond volume is, in many reſpects, leſs intereſting. Our author's pictureſque taſte is juſtly called forth in the view from Caſtle green, at the weſtern extremity of Saliſbury; but, as it ſeems an extraordinary exertion, it is of courſe ſoon concluded. The town of Sherborn, its caſtle, lodge, and church, are deſcribed at ſome length, and the travellers ſoon reach the chalk country. The following remarks deſerve notice.

'Before we ſearched into the nature of the ſubſoil, we were ſufficiently inſtructed that it had paſſed into chalk by the altered aſpect

of vegetation. By attending to this circumſtance, the mineralogiſt may often obtain pretty certain indications of the tranſitions of ſtrata, and thus agriculture and botany lend their aſſiſtance to him, as well as prove their intimate connection with each other. Agriculture, in its turn, receives help from mineralogy, for ſoils being ſo much dependent on the decompoſition of their ſubſtrata, the farmer can aſcertain neither the nature, nor the probability of finding a depth, of the former, but by learning the texture and properties of the minerals which conſtitute the latter. The botaniſt will afford information both to the farmer and to the mineralogiſt. He will often tell them, by the preſence of one particular plant, ſuch, for inſtance, as *hedyſarum onobrychis* (ſaint-foin), *campanula glomerata*, or even the humble little *hippocrepis comoſa* (horſe-ſhoe vetch), that the ſoil can be no other than a cretaceous one, and will point out in *pteris aquilina* (brakes) a certain witneſs of a depth of mould.' Vol. ii. P. 15.

About Wrantage, the chalk degenerates into grit, occaſionally mixed with flint; and this in Taunton Dean becomes red loam, which communicates with a ſimilar ſoil in Devonſhire, ſlightly interrupted. Taunton is deſcribed at unuſual length.

Mr. Maton again enters Devonſhire, and ſpeaks of the luxuriant ſcenery of Colombton, the bridge over the Colomb, and this river falling into the Exe near Huckſham. The whole of this account is a ſtrange mixture of exaggeration and miſtake, which, on another viſit, our author may perhaps correct. That the refuſe manganeſe contributes to the fertility of ground, is a new remark, to which we do not agree.

The northern coaſts of Devonſhire, and the principal towns, are correctly, but ſhortly deſcribed. Our author is erroneous, however, in his ſuppoſition that cider will diſſolve lead, when vitrified. The following ſhort deſcription is in his beſt ſtyle.

'A very barren, unintereſting tract ſoon ſucceeds the cultivation and beauty ſo conſpicuous in the environs of Barnſtaple. Towards Ilfracombe, however, the country aſſumes a very peculiar and diſtorted aſpect, being broken into vaſt knolls, ſteep precipices, and irregular hollows. The nearer we approach the coaſt, the more wild and uncommon is the *contour* of the landſcape, and the road ſeems ſometimes, at a diſtance, ſtopt by tremendous gaps, forbidding any farther progreſs;—at length it winds down an immenſe declivity, and brings us within ſight of Ilfracombe. The fantaſtic effect of the ſurrounding ſcenery is now loſt; its features, which, like the ſtrange diſtortions of a diſtant cloud, the imagination clothes with ſomething of horridneſs, become ſuddenly melted down into forms more familiar.' Vol. ii. P. 70.

The ſcenery and the mines (now almoſt forſaken) at Combe

Martin are next noticed; and an expectation of the union of killas and granite might have been gratified in many parts of this county; but they never degenerate into each other: in many instances, as in Scotland, the killas *seems* to sink under the granite.

The Valley of Stones, and the country round it, are described with animation: we are sorry that it would form an extract too long for our limits. The mere description occurs in other works; but the following observations are peculiarly our author's own.

'We endeavoured to trace the several steps by which vegetation has advanced in this valley. Many masses of rock once exposed to view are now wholly clothed with turf; others are just acquiring a vestment of moss; whilst others manifest only faint signs of incipient organization. We may form some notion of the succession in which one tribe of vegetable bodies become subservient, by the regulated season of their decay, to the existence and support of another. On this rock we perceive *Lichen geographicus*, *L. niger*, *byssus antiquitatis*, and others of the crustaceous, or less perfect division of plants, unmolested in their habitations; but presently, on another mass, *L. saxatilis*, *nigrescens*, and *fragilis*, become intruders on the former. In another place these are decomposing, and constitute a *pabulum*, or mould for two or three species of *Bryum*, *Lichen uncialis*, *pyxidatus*, and other plants of this rank. Here again we find further effects of decomposition, and a thin soil prepared for the reception of a *hypnum*, or of a little grass, or lastly, of the more evidently organized *erica*. As I amused myself with these observations, and remarked the great prevalence of some species of *lichen* and the total absence of others, I was led to reflect on the aid that this curious tribe of vegetables affords to mineralogy. The most abundant plant, by far, was *L. geographicus*; *L. lacteus*, *niger*, *Æderi*, *tartareus*, and *fragilis*, were frequent; but scarcely any specimens of the common yellow liverwort (*L. parietinus*) were to be found. This circumstance would alone have been sufficient to shew that the composition of the rock was of a peculiar kind. *L. calcareus* and *byssus saxatilis* being partial to limestone, wherever that stone occurs amongst others, it may at once be distinguished, by these species adhering to it; *L. cæsius* and *cupularis* are known to abound only on slate mountains; *L. furfuraceus* seems to prefer granite; and many others might be pointed out equally nice with regard to their place of abode. Sudden variations, then, in the composition of rocks may often be discovered at merely a glance, by becoming acquainted with their more obvious vegetable inhabitants.' Vol. ii. p. 88.

The northern coast, excepting Dunster castle, the road to Bridgewater, and the town itself, are passed over too cursorily. In this part, trees are often found, on digging, in their natu-

ral poſition, which may either ariſe from the ſubſiding of the ground, as Mr. Maton ſuppoſes, or the accumulation of ſoil. We would attribute it, for many reaſons, to the latter; and, whoever has obſerved the ſoil round Bridgewater, and the ſemi-ſolid ſtate of its water, from diffuſed clay, will probably adopt the ſame opinion. Eaſt of Bridgewater the clay is ſoon combined with horizontal ſtrata of lime-ſtone.

The Chedder rocks are delineated with a bold and diſcriminating pencil; and, though they have been often deſcribed, the preſent account may vie with that of any modern traveller. The Mendip mines of calamine, and the lead mines of this diſtrict, are alſo ſatisfactorily noticed. Wokey hole of courſe claims its ſhare of attention.

Wells and Glaſtonbury are deſcribed at too great length. About Emborough, the lime becomes free-ſtone; and, under this, with ſome intermediate argillaceous ſtrata, lies the coal of the neighbourhood. To our knowledge of the coal ſtrata, Mr. Maton adds nothing.

The account of the ſtrata around Bath preſents nothing new or intereſting; nor, indeed, do we find any thing in the remainder of the tour, which requires further detail.

The mineralogical map is on too ſmall a ſcale, and in many reſpects inaccurate. This is more to be regretted, as Mr. Fraſer's map of Devonſhire, at leaſt, might eaſily have been conſulted; and, with all the faults of that author's ſurvey, the map, ſo far as our knowledge extends, is accurate. Upon the whole, we cannot ſpeak highly of theſe volumes. Truth and error, accuracy and inattention, are ſo frequently mixed, that we dare not recommend them in general as competent guides in the tour deſcribed. We truſt that another viſit to theſe regions will contribute greatly to the value of a new edition.

The Hiſtory of Devonſhire. In Three Volumes. By the Rev. Richard Polwhele, of Polwhele in Cornwall, and late of Chriſt-Church, Oxford. Vol. II. Folio. 2*l.* 2*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies.

THE hiſtory of a large and varied county is a work ſo arduous, and requires talents of ſuch different and oppoſite kinds, that even to approach perfection may be deemed no common or inconſiderable excellence; to fail with decency, no little merit. The poet's eye, 'in a fine frenzy rolling,' may deſcribe the pictureſque ſcenery of a beautiful diſtrict,—the laborious antiquary may delineate the ancient ſtructure, and, of each 'ſtoried window,' or each ornamented pinnacle, fix the proper date, or aſcertain the legitimate proportions,

—the genealogiſt may penetrate through the obſcurity of numerous ages, to connect diſtant families, or to draw a lineage from ſome boaſted anceſtor,—and the philoſopher may trace nature in all her varieties of animal life, of vegetable beauty, or of mineral utility. But the brilliancy of genius is little adapted to patient toil; and the drudgery of genealogical reſearch is ſeldom combined with the more varied excurſions of the poet and the man of taſte and ſcience. From the want of an union of theſe requiſites, provincial hiſtories have frequently diſappointed the expectations of their patrons. It has rarely happened that a man of extenſive views, and general ſcientific information, has engaged in the taſk. For ſuch an hiſtorian, inferior agents might copy epitaphs, or deſcribe churches; botaniſts and mineralogiſts might unite under his auſpices, and allow their ſtores to be arranged and adorned under his hands; and he would not only allow to the genealogiſt and the chorographer, their proper ſhare, but would place their labors where they might be relieved by more animating and more intereſting ſcenes. With ſuch aſſiſtance he might keep up the attention of his readers; and by conſtantly introducing novelty, where trite deſcription has had its ſhare, would render his work varied, pleaſing, and intereſting.

The firſt idea of a regular and complete Hiſtory of Devonſhire was, we believe, formed by Dr. Lyttelton, while dean of its metropolis. The few collections which he made came into the hands of his ſucceſſor, Dr. Milles, who added to them conſiderably. Riſdon's ſurvey of the county was begun in 1605, but was not completed before 1630. It was firſt printed in 1714, in a very incorrect and imperfect manner; and it was this edition which Mr. Chapple intended to republiſh, and for which he made ample preparations. One part of this enlarged edition appeared in 1775, and was noticed by us*. This gentleman's materials were purchaſed by Sir Robert Palk, and by him conſigned to Mr. Badcock. If the latter very lively and extenſively learned man had engaged with earneſtneſs in the taſk, he would probably have produced a work of the firſt claſs, which might have proved a model for every future county-hiſtorian; but his mind and body, broken by vexation and diſeaſe, were no longer adapted to an office which required youth, health, and activity. We believe he did little, but that little was returned with Mr. Chapple's MSS. to Sir Robert Palk; and the whole is often quoted under the title of the Palkian MSS. In theſe we find none of the collections of Lyttelton or Milles; and, though the name of the latter is ſometimes quoted, we ſuſpect that all his collections have not been communicated to the preſent writer:—if they were, his

* See Critical Review, Vol. LX. p. 193.

ſtores muſt have been very trifling. Theſe are therefore the principal materials of Mr. Polwhele, if we except voluntary communications. Under this title we meet with many names which we never before heard; but merit will ſometimes ſhrink from inquiry. We regret that we do not meet with the names of ſome gentlemen, from whom the author might have received eſſential aid.

It is the ſecond volume which we now take up; and for this ſeemingly irregular ſtep, as well as the delay, ſome apology may be requiſite. In fact, we were unwilling to engage in the conſideration of a work, the whole plan of which had not been fully explained; and, diſguſted as we had been by the weakneſs and errors of a crude injudicious work, (the 'Hiſtorical Views,' noticed in the ninth volume of our New Arrangement, p. 267.) we wiſhed to ſee Mr. Polwhele's fancies in a better dreſs, that we might take up his Hiſtory without prejudice. A part only of the firſt volume, however, is yet publiſhed.

Mr. Polwhele thus introduces us to the plans of other county-hiſtories, and his own:—

'The materials for a provincial hiſtory are a vaſt and heterogeneous maſs, the diſcordant parts of which are with difficulty ſeparated and regularly diſpoſed. But, to exhibit clear views of his ſubjects, ſeems to be as indiſpenſably required from the hiſtorian as from the painter: this, indeed, ſhould be more peculiarly the aim of the provincial hiſtorian. Yet few writers of county-hiſtories, have ſufficiently attended to perſpicuity, in the arrangement of their materials. The natural hiſtory, the antiquities, the civil hiſtory, and the chorography of a county (including a great variety of ſubordinate topics) have generally been treated promiſcuouſly. The writer, after a curſory ſurvey of his county, divides it into pariſhes. And, in each pariſh, we are furniſhed with all the particulars of its natural hiſtory and antiquities, political tranſactions, civil and religious conſtitution, architecture, agriculture, mining, manufactures, commerce, language, literature, and biography; to which are ſubjoined notices of the inhabitants, as to their bodily ſtrength and longevity, their uſages and their manners. Uncongenial as theſe ſubjects, for the moſt part, are, with chorographical deſcription, or genealogical detail, the author attempts to bring them all together, within the narrow parochial boundaries that he ſees preſcribed to him: and, as often as he enters a new pariſh, he hath the ſame ground to go over again — the ſame taſk to perform afreſh. In this manner each pariſh embraces its own hiſtory; independent on its neighbour: and the book contains as many hiſtories as pariſhes. The compiler, however, who purſues this plan, hath one obvious advantage over the more regular hiſtorian. In his account of every pariſh, he has ſome chance of engaging the attention of his readers. Where natural hiſtory is defective, anti-

quities may ſupply the want of it: where the ſearch for antiquities hath been fruitleſs, biography may come to the writer's aid. The ſame obſervation may be extended to the other various topics, that preſs for a place within the little circle I have mentioned. Thus, wherever we open the volume, we find ſomething to amuſe the mind: and the tedioufneſs of genealogies, in particular, is every where relieved. But ſuch a compilation is very unſatisfactory on the whole: it is mechanical, without connexion: it is artificial, without elegance: and it becomes tireſome, if read for any length of time, from the unvaried repetition of the ſame ſeries of topics.' P. i.

This plan, though reprobated by Mr. Polwhele, preſents a variety and an entertainment that muſt ſecure it attention; and, at a time when we had ſcarcely recovered the fatigue of wading through the dreary pages of the preſent hiſtory, appeared to us peculiarly faſcinating. On the contrary, to follow the dry chorographer through ſucceſſive paſſages, arbitrarily connected by deaneries, the method of Mr. Polwhele, is a taſk both tedious and difficult. We are hurried, in the different diviſions, from the banks of the Exe to the rugged features of Blackdown; and find, in the ſame page, eſtates and families, differing in ſoil, in hiſtory, and in manners. We recognize at leaſt in this mode, we cannot call it arrangement, the artifice of the poet,—'*modo me Thebis, modo ponit Athenis.*'

To repeat indeed each cuſtom, or to deſcribe, in unmeaning detail, the inhabitants of every pariſh, is what no county-hiſtorian has yet attempted; but, had the hiſtorian of Devonſhire divided his ſurvey in a way leſs 'mechanical' than that which he has adopted, he needed not to have repeated his deſcriptions. The inhabitants of the ſea-coaſt, of the higher regions of Dartmoor, and of the lower grounds, would have formed varied and intereſting groupes. The ſailor, the ſhepherd, the farmer, and the miner, differ nearly as much as man can differ from man.

'It is not, however, in deference to the judgment of perſons whoſe ideas are circumſcribed within the limits of their reſpective pariſhes, and who are attracted only by notices of their own lands, or the eſtates around them, that I have purſued my preſent plan: I have purſued it from a conviction, that this method is clear and diſtinct. My deſcriptions, it is true, may frequently appear ſuperficial and defective: but they cannot either appear the one, or the other, to thoſe who comprehend the deſign of the whole work: and to thoſe who do not, I addreſs neither explanations nor apologies.' P. ii.

This obſervation appears to us deciſive *againſt* the plan. To collect the accounts of each place, to dive below the ſurface, and to ſupply defects, various parts of the work muſt be conſulted,—an inconvenience ſtill more ſenſible in ſlowly

ſucceeding volumes, where, probably, for the completion of even the account of Exeter, we muſt wait ſeveral years. But as the author, in compliance with the wiſhes of friends 'whom he reveres,' and, ſeemingly, in full confidence of his own powers of entertainment, has given us this '*caput mortuum*,' we muſt, *in duty*, follow him: we muſt analyſe this dull inert maſs; and perhaps ſome particles of gold will repay the toil.

A ſhort deſcription of Exeter precedes the account of the cathedral. In the church-yard two houſes only are noticed:—the reſt will perhaps be found in the third volume. The church is carefully deſcribed; and the epitaphs, we ſuppoſe, are correctly tranſcribed. When, however, in this and other places, Mr. Polwhele mentions the value of the different offices and livings in the king's books, we wiſh he had added their preſent ſuppoſed value.

With the general deſcription of the archdeaconry of Exeter we were highly pleaſed.

'Here, we have landſcapes enriched with all the beauties of fertility, and in an high ſtate of cultivation. There, opens a ſcenery untouched by any hand but that of nature, in which ſhe hath diſplayed, though on a ſmall ſcale, views ſimilar to thoſe of the moſt mountainous and diſordered parts of the globe.

'From ſo broken a country muſt ariſe great inconveniencies to the traveller: but the hand of art hath interpoſed; and he is accommodated with firm, even, and well-made roads. Nor ſhould he regret the ſteepneſs of the hills, and the difficulty of their aſcent, whilſt the tedioufneſs of the way may be relieved by the quick ſucceſſion of highlands and dales, and the ſhort diſtances between our houſes, villages, and towns.

'And the numerous incloſures of paſture and corn-land (the fences of which partly conſiſt of ſhrubs and trees) together with flouriſhing orchards thickly interſperſed, ſo finely diverſify the ſcene, that, at almoſt every ſtep, we are preſented with a new and charming landſcape. Even in the more inland parts, which have not the advantage of ſea-proſpects, we ſcarcely look for any additional beauty. In this manner is the eye delighted, during the ſpring and ſummer ſeaſons in particular, whilſt the bloom of our orchards and the flowers and ſhrubs in our hedges afford ſtill farther pleaſure.' Vol. ii. p. 5.

'In the mean time, the more open and leſs fertile tracts are rendered highly pleaſing by the force of contraſt to a pictureſque imagination. In ſome places, large woods and coppices, broken by ſmall incloſures, have a fine effect as viewed from the downs: in others, the torrs of the foreſt are oppoſed to ſpots of the livelieſt verdure within reach of the eye. And here, at nearer diſtances, we ſee herds of cattle feeding among the ſcattered rocks—there, all the buſy varieties of the farm.

'Even in winter, this county seems to possess the more agreeable charms of landscape — such as no other part of the island presumes to emulate: and this is principally owing to the peculiarity of our earthen fences, which exceed in height most others in England, and are full of evergreens.

'And our hedgerow trees, though stript of their leaves, are still clasped by the ivy, and often by the periwinkle. But the holly, observable in almost every part of Devonshire, that spreads for several miles without interruption through many of our hedges, forming in one place an impenetrable fence by the closeness of its boughs, and the prickliness of its leaves; in another separating into distinct trees, whose tall and straight stems are no less elegant than their glossy verdure and scarlet berry; this is an object we have eminently to boast, and which is, doubtless, the first in the picturesque.

'Nor ought we to neglect those adventitious images which must necessarily present themselves to observation in so variegated a county, and which to the eye of the painter or the poet, are no less gratifying than the permanent features of a landscape. By adventitious images, I chiefly mean the rich tints of light, and the strong shadow from the breaking of a cloud, interrupted by the hills in its passage; and the apparent fleetingness of objects from the quick transition of lighter clouds over so hilly a country. In a flat country, this diversification is wanting. Here a passing cloud alters for a moment the features of the whole scene; and new objects rise suddenly to view, whilst those we were contemplating, fade away. Fogs, also, sailing along the vallies, skirting the woods, or hanging upon the sides of the hills, are more frequently seen in Devonshire than many other counties of England.' P. 6.

We have afterwards a more particular description of the soil and rivers of this district; but it is, in some measure, unintelligible, for want of an assistance of the first importance,— a map. In reading this account with attention, we meet with some singularities. If the country between the Exe and the Teign be one of the most fruitful parts of Devonshire, though divided by a down from one to three miles broad, the great fertility of this county cannot be boasted of. In another place, we meet with a '*strong* stratum,' we suppose in opposition to the bogs adjoining to Exmoor: in another, a river is mentioned as running to the sea, which has always been described as lost among the pebbles of the beach,— we mean the Sid. In almost every part of this section we are referred to something which is to precede or to follow: the *where* and the *when* are not explained.

In the account of the deanery of Exeter, we have a description of the churches of Exeter and its neighbourhood. We could not avoid remarking, that Mr. Polwhele's predecessor in these collections, the man to whom the present volume is much more

indebted than to our author, is paſſed over with ſingular neglect. The deanery of Cadbury follows, which offers no particular ſubject of obſervation, if we except the derivations. Theſe are often trifling, and in ſome inſtances groſsly miſtaken; but even truth in ſuch diſquiſitions is like 'two grains of wheat in two buſhels of chaff: you ſhall ſeek all day ere you find them, and when you have them they are not worth the ſearch.' Nothing more ſtrongly evinces the futility of etymological inquiries in the preſent inſtance, than the number of ſources from which the ſame appellation may, with equal probability, be derived. The deanery of Dunsford is equally barren of intereſt and entertainment. In that of Kenne we find Crediton; and, as a curious inſtance of the vaſt advantages of our author's *inartificial* plan, the neighbouring and almoſt united pariſh, Sandford, is at the diſtance of more than fifty pages. We were more ſtruck with his deſcription of this place, as, in paſſing through it ſome years ſince, we formed a very different opinion; nor can we underſtand how the ſituation can be ſaid 'to have every thing to recommend it,' when on the eaſt and weſt the hills are of immenſe height, and the town is chiefly built in a valley ſo narrow, that the gardens on one ſide aſcend a ſteep hill. From this comparative valley we deſcended about a mile, before we reached Downes, the ſeat of Mr. Buller, which was *then* in a marſh at the *bottom* of a hill: but, perhaps, the houſe has been rebuilt, and the town raiſed by ſome ſubterraneous commotion. We enlarge on this part becauſe our recollection of it is more perfect; but we perceive numerous inſtances of what we ſuſpect to be the groſſeſt inaccuracy, which our local knowledge is not ſo exact as to detect with certainty. In the account of Exminſter, fogs are mentioned by Riſdon as frequent and unhealthy. The fact is allowed by Mr. Polwhele; but a ſneer at Riſdon is ſubjoined. We introduce this remark for the ſake of a more general obſervation,—that not a ſingle predeceſſor in the hiſtory of Devonſhire eſcapes without the cenſure of the preſent author. Theſe cenſures are ſometimes ſo rude, as to excite the ſevereſt indignation; and ſometimes ſo apparently unfounded, as to recoil on himſelf.

Ugbrook is well deſcribed; and, in many parts of the account of Teignmouth, the writer ſeems to merit our commendation. The ſituation, however, is very incorrectly ſtated to be at the bottom of the bay between the Noſe and Portland. This deſcription would equally ſuit Sidmouth, at the diſtance of nearly twenty miles.

We ſhall paſs over the prouder ſcenes of Mamhead, Powderham, and Ugbrook, to deſcribe the humbler grounds of Oxton, in our author's words. He ſeems to treat of this ſpot

con amore.

'The manſion-houſe at Oxton is a large building, planned by its preſent poſſeſſor: and, executed under his inſpection, it reflects honour on his taſte; as well as the late improvements of the circumjacent grounds, which, conſiſting of about 320 acres, are laid out in a ſtyle that perfectly accords with the modern faſhion in gardening. This, indeed, if it may be termed a faſhion, is not like other faſhions, fluctuating or uncertain; ſince it is founded on the principles of nature and truth. And, he to whom theſe principles are familiar, would with pleaſure frequent the groves of Oxton. In the woods that overhang its romantic hills, there are ſome noble trees: and here the mountain-aſh, as a tree, aſſumes a peculiar character—a beautiful plant, when bloſſoming, or feſtooned with berries. The paths by which we penetrate the receſſes of theſe native woods, are opened with the exacteſt judgment: and from every ruſtic ſeat we are preſented with ſome new proſpect; which ſeems to float "in airy portraiture," as it breaks upon the eye through the waving foliage. On the ſide which borders upon Mamhead, the way from Oxton to that fine ſeat of lord Liſburne, winds delightfully through many varieties of landſcape. And, riſing on one of the higheſt eminences above the woods, a pleaſure houſe, called *the cottage*, may well be deemed ſacred to friendſhip and the muſes. Built in the Gothic ſtyle, and adorned on the inſide with the productions of Mr. Swete's elegant pencil, we look from its windows over a country, which, though viewed from the neighbouring heights, ſeems dreſt with new charms from this point of proſpect. The Exe, after having waſhed the walls of Exeter, is, from hence, beheld emptying its waters into the ſea: and the leaden hue of Haldon oppoſed to the brilliance of the ſcenery below, has from the cottage a peculiarly fine effect. On the oppoſite hills of Oxton there are beauties, alſo, worthy the pencil of their poſſeſſor: but I have time only to notice a ſtately grove of holly, which is, here, uncommonly tall and ſpreading. Yet, amidſt the intervening valley, we ſhould remember the wandering of the ſtream and the ſtill expanſe of water gleaming beneath the trees, and the caſcade that foams at the baſe of a high perpendicular rock. And this vale appears to great advantage from the houſe; whilſt the Belvidere at diſtance ſeems to finiſh the whole.' P. 162.

The deſcription of the proſpect from the Belvidere at Powderham alſo deſerves our attention, as Powderham has been ſo unaccountably overlooked by a late picturesque traveller.

'The views from the Belvidere are a complete garden—its parts diſcriminated with the moſt brilliant diſtinctneſs, yet flowing into one beautiful whole. To conceive an accurate idea of theſe fine peculiarities, we aſcend the ſtaircaſe of the Belvidere, and ſeparately ſurvey the three different parts from the three windows of its elegant room. If we begin with the ſouth-weſt view, from the ſouth-

weſt window, we are preſented with a rich morning landſkape. 'In the foreground we are at firſt ſtruck with the plantations of fir, birch, aſpin, and other kinds of trees, that ſlope away from the ſteep verdant hill on which the Belvidere ſtands. To the right, a ſmall piece of water breaks out above the wooded valley; which ſeems, by an agreeable deception, to loſe itſelf amidſt the trees; when, carrying the eye along the ſkirting of the plantation, we meet a canal apparently a continuation of this water. Above the marſh, on the ſides of the hill directly oppoſite, we ſee a variety of encloſed ground ſtretching away to a great extent—paſtures, corn-fields, and orchards. Still farther and bounding the proſpect, the flinty mountain of Haldon ſeems to ſupport the clouds, in one long line above theſe variegated encloſures. This unbroken line is terminated, to the right, by Lawrence caſtle; to the left, by the obeliſk of Mamhead. Removing to the ſouth-eaſt window, we have, immediately below the eye, the fir-plantations ſtill continued and ſweeping down the hill; whilſt their deep and dark foliage receives an additional richneſs from the gleaming of the caſtle-turrets. Large groupes of trees riſe in the park, and overſhadow the caſtle. If we look to the green marſhy level under this wooded headland, the canal again attracts the eye; from the midſt of which an iſlet emerges, beautifully planted with ſhrubs. Winding round this ſpot of verdure and fragrance, the artificial ſtream purſues its courſe through the marſh, till it reaches the river Exe, into which its waters deſcend. The village of Kenton, interſperſed with orchards, and Warborough hill gradually riſing above South town and Starcroſs, its brow crowned with firs, are near and ſtriking objects on the other ſide of the canal. At the mouth of the Exe, there is a long bank of ſand which is called the Warren, and beyond it, the ſea. On the other ſide of the Exe, at the extreme point of land, we have Exmouth in proſpect; and on the ſame ſide, further up the river, we catch a glimpſe of the village of Lympſtone—above which are extenſive hills, apparently not in a ſtate of high cultivation. At the north-eaſt window, the Exe appears in full view; ſpreading its waters in a wider expanſe, as it directs its courſe through a ſtraight and ſpacious valley. On this ſide of the river, the land is rich, but not planted, except (in the centre) with ſome clumps of fir, and here and there with a few ſcattered trees. At a little diſtance up the river, on the other ſide of it, the town of Topſham ſhews various irregular buildings: and, ſtill looking up the river until we loſe it among the hills, we ſee the cathedral towers, and a part of the city of Exeter (through a bright atmoſphere) in beautiful perſpective.' P. 171.

In Powderham, a chapel has been converted into a drawing-room, and this is modeſtly ſtyled an alteration; at Nutwell, the converſion of a place of worſhip into a library, riſes to an improvement; but, in ſome other places, ſimilar alterations are treated as profane

The extenſive deanery of Kenne is followed by that of Ayleſbeare; and here our author's artifice (or want of artifice) has admitted of a little connection. Topſham and Lympſton ſeem to be accurately deſcribed; and, in this neighbourhood, an ancient family, mentioned in a note, attracted our attention. Their name is Sucpitch, derived, it is ſaid, from one of their anceſtors having been found 'ſucking a bitch.' Their eſtate they hold by two little pieces of parchment without date or ſeal, but ſuppoſed to be of an æra earlier than the conqueſt. It is aſſerted that this family has not afforded a deſcendant of ability ſufficient to add to the eſtate (except, indeed, by the plantation of 700 elms, about ſixty years ago), or ſpirit to make a liberal uſe of it. We remember, ſome years ago, to have heard from an old gentleman who had inſpected the original deeds, that the name was Suc-aſpic: we then ſuppoſed it to be connected with the Eſpecs, the family of the Spekes.

Exmouth ſeems, from Mr. Polwhele's account, to be an advantageous ſituation for bathing, and a moſt ſalubrious retreat for invalids.

The deaneries of Plymtree and Honiton follow, but afford nothing very intereſting to the general reader. In a note on this part of the work, we obſerve a curious promiſe or a threat, that an account will be added of all thoſe perſons who have accelerated or *retarded* the work. Mr. Polwhele, we find, has cenſure at command; but this volume has ſcarcely offered us a ſingle inſtance of glowing praiſe, except that which relates to Mr. Swete. In the day of retribution we may perhaps have our ſhare, and high-ſounding ſatire may gibbet up our names. But on this point we are indifferent:—we ſhall always inflexibly continue to diſpenſe impartial juſtice.

The deaneries of Dunkeſwell and Tiverton conclude the volume, and are in no reſpect the ſubject of our remarks. Tiverton, the earlieſt trading town of the weſt, ſeems not to be noticed with all the attention which it deſerves.

With regard to the principal merit of Mr. Polwhele, as an hiſtorian, and particularly as a chorographer, we cannot eaſily decide. His accuracy we have ſometimes, even from diſtant recollection, been able to impeach; and many complaints of error and inattention have reached us. We perceive various marks of ſupercilious conceit, of a tendency to blame; and few indications of the gratitude which he ought to feel for the aſſiſtance received from Mr. Chapple's MSS. from Riſdon, from Sir William Pole, and others. Such a conduct cannot have conciliated eſteem, and may have magnified errors. In the points of which we can more eaſily judge, we cannot highly praiſe our hiſtorian. There is much apparent inconſiſtency in ſome of the deſcriptions; others are coloured with a ſuſpicious brilliancy; and the whole is unconnected, dry,

and unintereſting. The language is apparently eaſy; but there is an aukwardneſs which frequently obtrudes itſelf,—that of beginning ſentences, and ſometimes paragraphs, with the connecting or disjunctive particles. Upon the whole, we conſider it as peculiarly unfortunate for the county, that its hiſtory has fallen into ſuch hands. Either as a faithful deſcriber, or as an antiquary, the writer does not ſeem qualified for the taſk.

Seven plates are added to this volume: their execution merits neither cenſure nor praiſe.

Memoirs of the Houſe of Medici, from its Origin to the Death of Franceſco, the ſecond Grand Duke of Tuſcany, and of the great Men who flouriſhed in Tuſcany within that Period. From the French of M. Tenhove, with Notes and Obſervations, by Sir Richard Clayton, Bart. 2 *Vols.* 4*to.* 2*l.* 2*s. Boards.* Robinſons. 1797.

AMONG the numerous candidates who have courted the honours of the hiſtoric muſe, no writers have been more ſucceſsful than thoſe who have confined their reſearches to a particular period, or a few remarkable events. The fame of Thucydides reſts on the hiſtory of the Peloponneſian war; and Salluſt has acquired immortality, as the recorder of the crimes, and delineator of the characters, of a Catiline and a Jugurtha. To trace back the hiſtory of a country to a remote æra, to times which, from the prevalence of fiction and romance, can only be elucidated by the faint glimmerings of tradition, and the feeble aid of conjecture; to carry on the ſeries of hiſtorical events through ages darkened by ignorance and ſuperſtition, and ſupplying little more than a regiſter of names, and a calendar of enormities; muſt prove equally unpleaſing to the writer and the reader. At a more advanced period, when events, if not more various, are recorded with greater preciſion; when, from the inquiring ſpirit which civiliſation diffuſes, the motives of men's actions are more fully inveſtigated, and more juſtly appreciated; the hiſtorian is perplexed with the multiplicity of facts, and encumbered with an unwieldy maſs of materials. Human life is too ſhort to examine and compare all that has been conjectured, aſſerted, or proved; and, therefore, to enter into detail is often to wander in the mazes of prejudice and error. But, when an author preſcribes to himſelf ſome diſtinct portion of hiſtory, it is only neceſſary for him to fix upon that which is particularly important, and therefore likely to be intereſting; and he may be ſaid to proportion his means to his ends. He will graſp at no more than human labour can accompliſh; and, if he be not deficient in

ability, the conſequence of his judicious choice will be reputation to himſelf, and inſtruction to others.

Theſe remarks were ſuggeſted by a peruſal of the volumes before us, and may be conſidered as an impartial teſtimony of approbation to the general plan of M. Tenhove's work, which involves a *hiſtory* rather than *memoirs* of the illuſtrious family of Medici, for more than three hundred years. This is one of the moſt intereſting and eventful periods that could be ſelected. Not to mention other cauſes, the revival of the arts and ſciences, and the patronage ſhown to the Greek refugees, who introduced their literature and taſte into Italy, muſt render it peculiarly inſtructive to every one who wiſhes to trace the progreſs of learning and the fine arts. No vehicle of communication could be better adapted for this purpoſe than authentic memoirs of the houſe of Medici. But, without dwelling longer on the general merits of the preſent undertaking, we ſhall ſubjoin an extract from the preface, giving ſome account of the original; and ſhall enrich our journal with ſuch quotations as we think will gratify the curioſity of our readers, and enable them to judge of the merit of Sir Richard Clayton as a tranſlator.

Speaking of Mr. Tenhove, the baronet obſerves that —

" The Memoirs of the Houſe of Medici were compoſed at his eaſe —from time to time — and were printed piece-meal as they were compoſed. — In the form he left them they have rather the aſpect of intereſting materials for a great work than that of a regular edifice. — As he did not live to complete his deſign, he committed to the flames all the copies of theſe memoirs, excepting thoſe which he had diſtributed to his particular friends in ſeparate parts as they came from the preſs." — From one of thoſe copies the tranſlation took its riſe. — It will be eaſily perceived ſuch a deſultory work would not from its nature admit of elegance. — To borrow an alluſion from Mr. Tenhove, without a preſumption of being "the eagle," I have often felt "the iron bars of the cage" in which I have been confined. — Some paſſages have been tranſplanted from the text into the notes, and others have been wholly omitted, which ſeemed to carry the reader too far out of his way, and were not connected with what either preceded or followed them. — Many of the latter include the "Belgiciſms and Galliciſms," which their author humouroufly acknowledges may be imputed to him; and as in all probabiliry he would have pared them away if he had finiſhed his work, to fulfil what I have reaſon to believe was his wiſh, has been with me a debt of honour. — The twenty-ſix books of the original are thrown into thirteen chapters, on the plan of Mr. Roſcoe's valuable life of Lorenzo de Medici, called the Magnificent. Mr. Tenhove's ſentiments have been given, I flatter myſelf, in general with fidelity and freedom; yet in a work of ſuch a length,

errors and miſtakes are unavoidable.—The ableſt ſcholars are however the moſt candid and indulgent critics, and they beſt know how to overlook the one, and pardon the other.' Vol. i. p. ii.

This is a modeſt account of the work, which, if it does not form a complete hiſtory, may yet be conſidered as a very valuable body of biography, interwoven with the Tuſcan annals.

The character of Coſmo de' Medici is thus given—

'After eight years of involuntary and forced diſſimulation the genius of Coſmo de' Medici ſeemed to be again ſoaring, and on the point of triumphing over every inferior obſtacle, which had embarraſſed it. Death abridged his freſh career of glory, and carried him off at the age of ſeventy-five, a term of life at which none of his deſcendants arrived, the cruel and celebrated female alone excepted, in whom the legitimate branch of the family expired. He was univerſally regretted, and the reſpect for him even put ſome bounds to the general rapacity. Public extortion reigned afterwards almoſt without controul, and fears were entertained, that every puny deſpot would extend his little circle of oppreſſions as far as he was able. Moſt of the Chriſtian princes lamented his loſs, and the whole city in tears followed his aſhes to the grave. The church of St. Laurence was choſen for the place of his interment, and every order of the ſtate unanimouſly beſtowed on him the title of the Father of his Country! — A great and glorious title! ſuperior to every other which his poſterity might have added on his tomb!

'If Coſmo de' Medici had been the legal and eſtabliſhed ſovereign of his country, the ſententious maxim of Bruyere, "Nommer un roi pere du peuple, ou de la patrie, c'eſt moins faire ſon eloge, que l'appeller par ſon nom, ou faire ſa definition," would have been his due.

'It is of little conſequence what was the colour of his complexion, and whether his hair was black or brown; but his ſtature was majeſtic, and his countenance inſpired reſpect and awe. A vulgar air, a crippled figure, with the face of Therſites, are powerful impediments in the way of elevation, when it depends on popular favour; and the Roman emperor, compared by Vopiſcus to a diſgraceful deity of the Latin calendar, had the good fortune to have hereditary claims to the throne he filled, and to be born within the purple of the palace.

'Poſterity has not yet determined whether the virtues of Coſmo de' Medici were real, or only ſpecious and affected. Henry Stephens, a bitter enemy of the Houſe of Medici, hath paſſed a ſevere cenſure on him in the following paſſage: "Côme a été loué pour ſa libéralité envers le peuple, mais cela ne tendait qu'à tirannie, et n' était cette douceur ſi non un appas et hameçon jetté pour prendre les poiſſons et les manger puis après. Cette fineſſe ne ſe peut apeller vertu, d' autant que les actions vertueuſes n' ont d' autre

but que la vertu, et perdent ce nom incontinent qu' elles viſent ailleurs. L' effet a montré à quelle fin tendait cette ombre de vertu."

'Coſmo de' Medici was ambitious without doubt, but ambition is a middle term between vice and virtue. Beyond a certain point it ceaſes to be virtue; before it reaches that point it is ſcarcely vice. They who judge of human actions, as they are extraordinary rather than as juſt, and as brilliant rather than as virtuous, will not fail to applaud the ſyſtem on which Coſmo governed. There are others to whom his ambition, according to the point of view from which they draw their obſervations, will appear as laudable, excuſable, or criminal: laudable conſidering the great talents it brought forward and into play — excuſable in contemplation of his formidable opponents, and the juſt fears that might be entertained from them of his own ruin, and that of the republic; — criminal, if the maxim is well-founded that the government, whatever it may be under which we live, is ſacred!—The moſt ſcrupulous might perhaps be of opinion D' Albizzi would have thought and acted as he did, and that Florence, doomed to periſh, might have been dragged to the precipice by the hands of ſome of her more abandoned ſons. The ſuppoſition may be correct, yet are we juſtified on the broad ſound principles of morality, in the commiſſion of an evil action to prevent another, and are our crimes to be defended by thoſe of others?

'It is a lamentable truth that ſtates and kingdoms have often ſunk from freedom into ſervitude, provided they have not been ſtartled by the name, and have ſuffered without emotion their deareſt liberties, by little and little, to be wreſted from them. Coſmo, from his knowledge of the world, had learnt the important leſſon, and ſtudiouſly concealing the power he had uſurped, he made no attempt at any apparent change in the conſtitution, whilſt he deſtroyed its ſubſtance, and reduced it to a ſkeleton and to a ſhadow. An additional honour or title might have created an alarm, and he guarded againſt it with uncommon care and prudence. Fear and hope, the two great ſprings of government, were the ladders and the ſteps by which he mounted; and his maſterly uſe of them raiſed him, as it were without deſign, above the other magiſtrates. Of his fortune he was certainly the founder, but two able friends lent their aſſiſtance in puſhing on the wheel, his relation Everardo of ſingular intrepidity, and Pucci Pucci, whoſe talents and addreſs were ſo much acknowledged, that the party for a long time bore his name. Vol. i. p. 59.

With regard to the emigration of the Greeks after the reduction of Conſtantinople by the Turks, we find theſe obſervations.

'Greece ceaſed to be the ſeat of arts and ſciences, the moment the arts and ſciences were no longer honoured. Local attachments and habitude faſtened down a few learned men to their native ſoil,

but they languiſhed unknown and unregarded, and grew old amidſt the general contempt. Others with more wiſdom choſe to wander in queſt of new ſettlements, and Italy afforded them an elegant retreat. Florence in particular received them in her beneficent boſom, and its maſter, the generous friend of letters, of merit, and of virtue, met his illuſtrious gueſts with open arms. To know, to cheriſh, and to ſcatter every bleſſing in his power on them was at once his ſtudy. To each of them he ſeemed to ſay:

"Quiſquis es, amiſſos hinc jam obliviſcere Graios.
Noſter eris.———"

'Such favours and Coſmo's hereditary taſte fixed the fugitives on the banks of the Arno, and Florence derived the moſt important advantages from the calamities of Greece. A crowd of well-informed inhabitants imported with them their literary treaſures, and the ancient manuſcripts from which they had extracted many of their beauties. Since the days of Leo the Iſaurian, Greece had produced ſome able ſcholars, and in the number, the firſt and ſecond Pſellus, and Photius the ſubtle and ingenious eunuch, ſo famous for his learning, his breach with the church of Rome, and his misfortunes. Yet with the ancients this latter group of learned men is not to be claſſed. Schools were ſoon eſtabliſhed by theſe exiles, and the tranſition from ignorance and ſtupidity to emulation and enthuſiaſm was immediate and rapid. The electric flaſhes ſpread to a vaſt diſtance, the elaſticity of genius recovered itſelf in every ſenſe, and the remaining chains of barbariſm were ſhaken.

'The firſt care of the fugitives was to communicate their language, not leſs eſtimable for its richneſs and harmony, than the ſcience of which it was the repoſitory. By the aid of the art of printing diſcovered in Holland, copies of the Greek and Latin manuſcripts nearly effaced, full of abbreviations, and difficult to decypher, were multiplied in beautiful characters, and even the moſt indifferent were deſirous to underſtand what they contained. Grammar was the porch by which it was neceſſary to enter. Vocabularies and treatiſes on the ſubject were much wanted, and ſuch ample and exact ſyſtems were ſoon compoſed, that nothing was left to be ſaid in future, if the ſubject could have been exhauſted.—Criticiſm, of great importance in the republic of letters, but too much undervalued at preſent, was then honoured and reſpected. It undertook to purge the text of the faults of the ancient copyiſts, to reſtore the injuries of time, and to explain by various commentaries and paraphraſes the ſenſe and meaning of the mutilated or corrupted paſſages. An indefatigable enthuſiaſm ranſacked every corner of antiquity, but ſome abuſes followed. The hatred and contempt of ignorance were puſhed into a contrary extreme, and produced a maſs of crude and indigeſted knowledge; too great a value was attached to the ſimple ſigns of ideas, the living languages were ſacrificed to the dead ones, and the memory was

cultivated at the expence of every other faculty. If literary pride and pedantry however were attended with theſe unexpected and extraordinary effects, and learning appeared to ſtifle genius, the inconvenience was but tranſitory. The mind ſoon took a different turn and a freer courſe; the ancients were examined for the models of ſublimity and beauty; theſe models inſpired a noble emulation; original works recalled to the remembrance the moſt maſterly performances; ſcience traverſed ſeas and mountains; the modern languages ſprung out of barbariſm; the ſtudy of words gave way to the ſtudy of things; truth roſe on the ruins of obſolete errors; philoſophy enlightened letters, letters ornamented philoſophy; and by inſenſible degrees we reached the ſtation, that we occupy at preſent.' Vol. i. p. 81.

If the limits of our Review would permit, we ſhould be tempted to lay before our readers the characters of Dante and Petrarch, as their merits are fairly appreciated, and their defects candidly admitted in the true ſpirit of diſcriminative and impartial criticiſm: but we muſt forbear, and haſten to the introduction of the Greek language into modern Italy.

'After a review of the ſtate of letters in Tuſcany before Coſmo de' Medici, the Greek exiles, who took refuge in Italy, in his time, and were received with great civility at Florence, are next entitled to attention. Father Gradenigo has in vain endeavoured to prove, in a letter to cardinal Quirini, printed at Venice 1742, that the Greek language has been cultivated in Italy ſince the twelfth century, but his ſyſtem has not any argument for its ſupport. The proverb "Græcum eſt, non poteſt legi," is ſuppoſed to have originated from Accurſus, a celebrated civilian of Florence, in the thirteenth century, and his early ſcholars. When they ſtumbled by accident on a Greek word, their interpretation was ſuſpended. They ingenuouſly acknowledged, as it was Greek, it was not to be read; and thus getting over the difficulty they reſumed the explication of the Latin text.

'The abbé Longuerue ſpeaks of a diſſertation by ſome Jacobin or other, tending to prove that St. Thomas Aquinas ſtudied Ariſtotle in the original, and was complete maſter of it. The learned abbé admits, however, the diſſertation to be at leaſt as paradoxical as the famous treatiſe under the title of "La Fatalité de St Cloud," which aſſerts, that Jacques Clement, the aſſaſſin of Henry the IIIrd, was neither a Jacobin, of any religious order, nor a Roman catholic, but an Huguenot. The Seraphic Doctor was in full poſſeſſion of the tenets of the Doctor of Grace, had ſome ſmattering of logick, a little cabal, was not ignorant that the ſoul was a totality; that archangels rank between angels and principalities; that baptiſm regenerates itſelf, and by accident; that the catechiſm is not a ſacrament but ſacramental; and that a heretic prince forfeits all right to

his crown, and may be depoſed by his ſubjects, but he was an entire ſtranger to the Greek language.

'We are told that Eloiſa, to keep up her acquaintance with the Greek, directed the ſiſters of the Paraclete founded by Abelard, and of which ſhe was the firſt abbeſs, to go through their office on the day of Pentecoſt in that language. Yet the penitent Eloiſa had certainly little if any knowledge of it. How ſhe could have acquired it, cannot be poſſibly divined, and it ſeems as extraordinary, that ſhe could have made any uſe of it, when there was an abſolute want of Greek authors in the weſt. All that we can allow to father Gradenigo is, that Petrarch and Boccacio had taſted though imperfectly ſome Attic treats. The former in his work upon ignorance, which has been already brought to the reader's recollection, ſpeaks of the monk Barlaam under whom he ſtudied, till his preceptor's death deprived him of his inſtructions. Petrarch, however, received a preſent of Homer from Nicolaus Sigerus in Romania, a preſent of more value, as Homer was only known in Italy from the Iliad in miſerable Latin verſe, which had been printed ſeveral times under the name of Pindar the Theban, as appears by a commentary on Statius. Petrarch in return informed his friend that he could not have made him a nobler, a more agreeable preſent, or one more worthy of him; that he was not ſurpriſed at ſuch a preſent from a perſon of his talents; that all the world agreed with Macrobius, in Homer's being the ſource of all invention; that the copy he had ſent him was more precious from its being the original unmutilated by any verſion; that it would have been ſtill more valuable if a perſon had attended it, to have explained it, and conducted him through the labyrinths of the Greek language; that from the want of ſuch aſſiſtance Homer was dumb to him, or rather that he was deaf to Homer; that he was notwithſtanding tranſported at the ſight of him, and as Cato at his time of life had applied himſelf to the ſtudy of the Greek, he was not in deſpair, and he requeſted a further preſent of Heſiod and Euripides.

'It appears very ſtrange, that amidſt a number of excellent Latin authors, the author of the Saturnales, a poor and paltry collection of anecdotes and witticiſms, ſhould have been the only Greek writer either much known or much eſteemed. This abſurdity is not to be accounted for on any other principle than a ſpecies of fatality, very diſproportionate to real merit,

"Habent ſua fata libelli."

'Time at laſt does juſtice to every character, and aſſigns to every thing its proper ſtation.

'Boccacio appears to have made rather more progreſs in the Greek, and there is the following paſſage in his genealogy of the gods. "Nonne ego fui qui Leontium Pilatum, Theſſalonicenſem virum, a Venetiis occiduam Babylonem quærentem, a longâ pere-

grinatione meis flexi conſiliis, in patriâ tenui?—Ipſe ego fui qui primus ex Latinis ab eodem in privato Iliadem audivi.—Et eſto non ſatis planè perceperim, percepi tamen quantum potui, nec dubium, ſi permanſiſſet ille homo vagus diutius penes nos, quin plenius percepiſſem." Boccacio's paſſion for Greek was more violent than Petrarch's, and the warmth of our inclinations is the general criterion of our ſucceſs.—Petrarch was a little chagrined with the rough and vulgar manners of Leontius, who had ſome knowledge but was very coarſe and brutal. When Boccacio wiſhed him to return, Petrarch wrote to him, and told him that though he was fully ſenſible how uſeful Leontius might be to them, he ſhould not ever join in any application to him to return to them; that a perſon who had trampled contemptuouſly under foot the delights of Florence could not with any juſtice complain of his ſufferings at Conſtantinople; and that after having grown old in the foreſts of Hæmonia, he might be at laſt food for Grecian worms; and that this modern Minotaur might if he pleaſed return to Crete, but he did not wiſh to hear any more of him.—Leontius, however, did not ſerve for the food of worms, for on his return to Italy, he periſhed by a flaſh of lightning in a thunder-ſtorm at ſea.

'Notwithſtanding the little progreſs the Greek language had yet made, the age of Coſmo de' Medici, and that of the council of Florence, including the few years which preceded it, may be conſidered as the true æra of its reſtoration in the weſt. Of the divine influence in this council there can be little doubt, if we are diſpoſed to believe an extraordinary circumſtance which is ſaid to have diſtinguiſhed it. St. Bernard, who attended it, was a monk of Florence, and very anxious to addreſs the Greek eccleſiaſtics, in order to perſuade them of the purity of the Roman church, and induce them to an union with it; but he laboured under the misfortune of being an entire ſtranger to the language. In defiance of the difficulty he had to ſtruggle with, he boldly roſe, in the midſt of the aſſembly, in full aſſurance that "the Lord's arm was not ſhortened," and that having once conferred the gifts of tongues on the apoſtles, and enabled them to ſpeak to "Parthians, Medes, and Elamites, the dwellers in Meſopotamia, and in Judea, and Cappadocia, in Pontus and Aſia, Phrygia and Pamphylia, Jews, Cretes, and Arabians, in their own tongues," he would beſtow on him the gift he wanted. What he believed would come to paſs, is ſaid to have done ſo; and St. Bernard ſpoke with the fluency and elegance of a native Grecian. This miracle was, however, of ſhort duration, and was obſerved to laſt only whilſt it was immediately neceſſary; for the moment St. Bernard finiſhed his harangue, he knew no more of the language than his nurſe.

'Emanuel Chryſoloras, the Byſantine, had arrived in Italy long before the capture of Conſtantinople, and was the firſt perſon who renewed the taſte and ſtudy for the Greek language. Venice, Rome, and Florence, had experienced the happieſt effects of his re-

ſidence, but his merit, which attracted Coſmo de' Medici's notice, drew down upon him the envy of many perſons, and he was expoſed to much ill-treatment. Even his venerable beard was not ſpared, which he retained from the cuſtom of his own country. It was ſuppoſed to be very populouſly inhabited, and occaſioned him many wanton inſults, as ridiculous as provoking. Wearied out with theſe repeated provocations, he took refuge beyond the Alps, and retired into Germany in diſguſt; but he was univerſally allowed to have been one of the moſt learned, the wiſeſt, and moſt eloquent of his countrymen.' Vol. i. p. 138.

Intereſting memoirs of Beſſarion, George of Trebiſonde, Amyrutzes, Theodore Gaza, &c. follow, which mark the progreſs of Grecian literature with accuracy. It has long, however, been lamented, that the charms of poetry, and the inſtructive pages of hiſtory, ſhould have been ſacrificed, in a great meaſure, to the ſubtle diſquiſitions of the diſciples of Ariſtotle, and the myſtical jargon of the Platoniſts.

(To be continued.)

Zechariah; a new Tranſlation: with Notes, Critical, Philological, and Explanatory; and an Appendix, in Reply to Dr. Eveleigh's Sermon on Zechariah II. 8—11. *To which is added, (a new Edition with Alterations) a Diſſertation on Daniel* IX. v. 20. *to the End. By Benjamin Blayney, D. D. Regius Profeſſor of Hebrew, and Canon of Chriſt Church, Oxford.* 4*to.* 10*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1797.

THE difficulties attending a tranſlation of the prophetical parts of ſcripture, and the neceſſity of a new tranſlation of the Bible, both for repreſſing the idle ſcoffs of infidels, and removing the prejudices of Chriſtians, are well known to every man who has attentively compared the ſcriptures in the original and in the vulgar tongue. Much is it to be lamented, that the ſpirit which prevailed in the time of James the Firſt is almoſt extinct: otherwiſe, from the greater helps now in our power, the Engliſh reader might ſee his Bible without thoſe glaring defects, which might with ſo little trouble be removed. But, till that day comes, when either the ſtate or opulent individuals will patroniſe a general ſcheme of biblical reviſion, we are much indebted to every one, who undertakes the tranſlation of ſeparate books; and, if by ſome changes he may expoſe himſelf to the cenſures of the weak, thoſe paſſages will be cloſely examined, and the truth will more readily be acknowledged.

The taſk which Dr. Blayney preſcribed to himſelf, was difficult. There are many obſcure paſſages in Zechariah,

and ſome which, having been conſidered as proofs of a particular doctrine, were thought too ſacred for criticiſm. The profeſſor, however, has ventured to deviate from the general opinion;—not that he diſbelieves this doctrine, but will not endeavour to ſupport it by ill-founded arguments. In the ſame manner, the moſt orthodox perſon may now allow, that the verſe 1 John v. 7, is ſpurious, without any derogation from his faith; and the clamour is certainly abſurd of thoſe men who cry out, 'You call one verſe ſpurious; you change the meaning of another; and thus by degrees we ſhall be robbed of the firmeſt ſupports of our faith.' By no means, we ſay. If the firſt epiſtle of John, and the prophecies of Zechariah, had never reached us, we ſhould have loſt indeed ſome excellent exhortations of the apoſtle to Chriſtian love, and thoſe prophecies relating to the Meſſiah's kingdom, and the ſtate of the Jews, which remote ages will ſee verified: yet the eſſential doctrines of Chriſtianity would remain unaltered, as they do not depend upon detached verſes, whoſe authenticity is diſputed, or meaning doubted. Without agreeing or diſagreeing with Dr. Blayney, we can ſee no ground for the acrimony of his opponents, and ſtill leſs reaſon, from their writings, to ſuppoſe them capable of contending with him on points of Hebrew criticiſm. But upon this topic we will preſent our readers with his own words.

'I much queſtion now after what has been offered, whether it will appear altogether ſo clear to the ſatisfaction of any unprejudiced mind, that "no four paſſages [namely, Zec. ii. 8. 11. iii. 2. xiii. 7. xii. 10.] in any one of the inſpired books can more immediately ſupport each other, or more fully evince a plurality of perſons in the Godhead, than thoſe which Dr. E. hath brought forward to view." Yet is not the doctrine leſs true, nor leſs certain on that account. It is a doctrine that muſt ultimately depend on the revelation of the New Teſtament, and by goſpel proofs muſt either ſtand or fall. And I am well aſſured that it will ſtand, built firm upon the foundation of a rock, which the aſſaults of infidelity ſhall never be able to ſhake. But neither is it my intention to inſinuate, that no intimations of it are to be met with in the Old Teſtament; on the contrary I believe there are ſeveral. This only I will venture to aſſert with ſome degree of confidence, that the four paſſages above cited are not of the number; no, nor is that other text in Jeremiah, ch. xxiii. 6. on account of which I have heretofore been publickly reprehended by Dr. E. It were however greatly to be wiſhed, that men of learning and piety would manifeſt a little liberality in the conſtruction they put upon the intentions of others, who chance to differ in opinion from them. I can take upon me to anſwer, not for myſelf only, but, from a long train of intimacy, for the excellent author of the new tranſlation of the minor pro-

phets, that we neither of us ever had it in our thoughts to explain away any part of holy writ, or to make any conceſſions whatever, merely in compliment to the tenets of any other ſect or perſon. I always feel myſelf, whenever I undertake the interpretation of ſcripture, uninfluenced by any other principle, and I ſhould abhor myſelf if I ſuffered any other to prevail with me, than that of giving utterance to the pure and ſimple perceptions of truth. I may err, and doubtleſs often have erred, but, I truſt, not from any undue bias. But neither is it in accord with my judgment to inſiſt, in any point of material conſequence, on indirect and doubtful proofs, where more direct and ſubſtantial ones are to be had. And in this I am confirmed by the practice of thoſe profeſſional gentlemen, whoſe daily experience beſt qualifies them to appreciate the force of evidence. Their maxim is, that the intermixture of feeble reaſoning diſparages a good cauſe, by leaving it in the adverſary's power to triumph in a partial confutation. Satisfied however as I may be, either now or at any other time, of the rectitude of my opinions, I ſhall never decline hearing reaſon in oppoſition to them; and if conviction is brought home to me, I ſhall moſt freely and thankfully acknowledge it; for to adopt the ſentiment of my ingenuous friend in a letter I have received from him on this occaſion; "It is not ſo much my wiſh to find my own interpretations true, as that ſuch interpretations may be found, in which men of ſound learning and judgment may acquieſce." If then Dr. Eveleigh is not fully ſatisfied with any thing I have ſaid, I am ready to enter into a further diſcuſſion of the matter with him, either in public or private. If he can convince me, I will thank him; if he cannot, he will at leaſt know the reaſons of my diſſent. And I truſt this may be done with all that good humour and complacency, with which a diverſity of opinion ought ever to be maintained between Chriſtians and between friends. Only let it be permitted me to ſuggeſt as matter of prudence, that it would perhaps be better, if the pulpit were not made the vehicle of controverſy.' P. 83.

The tranſlation is in general well executed; we are willing, in many caſes, to adopt the alterations, and alſo the explanations of the prophecies: in others, we ſee ſufficient reaſon for retaining former opinions, or thoſe which have been given to us from recent diſcoveries.

Zec. II. 4. 'Jeruſalem ſhall inhabit villages,
Becauſe of the multitude of men and cattle within her.'

The firſt line is harſh; and we prefer the expreſſion of Michaelis: Jeruſalem ſhall be inhabited 'dorfweiſe,' like villages. The ſenſe is the ſame. It will extend itſelf on all ſides; and, from the number of men and cattle, the latter requiring fields for paſture, it will have the appearance of crowded villages.

II. 8. 'For thus hath Jehovah of hosts said,
Sending me after the glory
Unto the nations—'

The second line is very obscure, and does not surely convey the meaning of the words אחר כבוד, in which the article '*the*' is not to be found. Michaelis gives a better meaning by his expressions, *nach vorhergegangener ehre:* the Greek is almost as obscure as our author, οπισω δοξης. May not the passage, consistently with the Hebrew idiom, run thus?

With an after glory he hath sent me
Unto the nations.—

This sense would correspond with that of Michaelis, alluding to a glory like that which heretofore distinguished the acts of God in favour of the sons of Israel.

III. 8. VI. 12. 'the branch.' The original is צמח, not הצמח; consequently we must reject the article *the*. We do not clearly see a prophecy of the Messiah in these passages. On the contrary, we are inclined to adopt the opinion of Michaelis, that they refer to Simon, one of the Maccabees.

III. 9. 'From one stone seven *fountains*'—rather seven *eyes*. IV. 10. 'Fountains of Jehovah running to and fro'—rather *eyes*. The eyes of the Lord are in every place. IV. 12. '*Orderers* of the olive trees'—*channels* would be better; or *branches* will give the sense, though it is not the exact meaning of שבל. 14. 'Two sons of oil.' Here our translator has omitted the article ה, or *the*; and we must observe here, that nothing is more common with translators than to neglect or insert the article without sufficiently attending to the original. Michaelis thus (perhaps preferably) renders the passage: 'these are the two sons of Yetzar.' V. 3. We can make no sense of this translation, 'Because on the one hand every one that stealeth is as he that is guiltless.'—We rather think that the roll was to separate the innocent from the guilty.

The much disputed passage we must give from our translator, XIII. 7.

'Awake, O sword, against my shepherd,
And against the man that is next unto me;
Saith Jehovah of hosts.'

This prophecy seems to us to be applicable only to our Saviour. The word עמית is frequently rendered *neighbour*; and 'the man that is next unto me,' strictly gives both the sense of the prophet, and is applied with propriety to the personage who sitteth on the right hand of God. The continuation of this prophecy, in the next chapter, is too difficult for

preſent ſolution; but, in XIII. 7 to 9, we ſee evidently the death of Chriſt, the ſubſequent ruin of Judæa, and a promiſe of reſtoration.

It is unneceſſary to enter into a minute criticiſm upon other paſſages; for every biblical ſcholar will probably conſult this tranſlation; and the generality of our readers would not be pleaſed with the diſcuſſion. The friend of archbiſhop Newcome comes with much prepoſſeſſion in his favour before the public; and he does not forfeit it by the preſent work. One circumſtance we could not avoid remarking in the liſt of authors conſulted; namely, that there is only one rabbinical writer noticed. We know the contempt with which theſe commentators are in general treated; but we will venture to ſay, that, however abſurd many of their conjectures may be, and however deficient they may be in critical taſte, yet, from retaining old traditions, uncontaminated by Greek or Latin philoſophy, they will occaſionally ſuggeſt new turns of phraſeology, which the tranſlator may appropriate to himſelf with advantage. We give this hint with the greater freedom to Dr. Blayney, becauſe, from his judgment in rejecting ſome opinions founded on the erroneous notions of antiquity, not on ſound reaſon and criticiſm, we are perſuaded that he would make a proper uſe of the remarks of Hebrew expoſitors.

Zoonomia; or, the Laws of Organic Life. *(Continued from p. 129.)*

IN inveſtigating the animal motions, we muſt ſoon arrive at their cauſes, which, as they include principles not explicable by the known properties of matter, are ſtyled *immaterial.* Of matter we have confeſſedly no idea, but from its properties; and what does not poſſeſs theſe, we term *ſpirit.* On inquiry, however, we find what has been ſo often predicated of matter, fallacious: we are certain that we experience the ſenſation of ſolidity, at ſome diſtance from the real object; that, while material atoms in their ſmaller parts are not permeable, yet matter, in maſſes, is permeable by matter of a rarer kind; and that, though we find maſſes inactive and inert, yet, when minutely divided, they are not only active, but their attractions, as well as their repulſions, are elective. As then our ideas of matter are fallacious, our negative ideas of ſpirit muſt be much more ſo; and, in the ſlowly-varying ſhades of animal, down to vegetable, and (if we may be allowed to uſe the expreſſion) to mineral life, it will be difficult to ſay where ſpirit ends and matter begins. The principles of the materialiſt will fail him in eſtabliſhing his ſyſtem. When he ſhall be able to trace the connection between the material impreſ-

ſion and the idea, between the latter and action, by the intervention of a principle purely immaterial, we mean volition, to develope that exertion which can ſeparate accidental qualities from the ſenſible idea, in order to render it an abſtract one,—and to reconcile theſe operations to matter,—he will then give a firm baſis to his future reaſoning. At the concluſion of our late article, we denied vegetables a power beyond the neceſſary effects of influences on machines peculiarly organiſed; and, of courſe, we ſubjected ourſelves to the queſtion, at what place we would fix the termination of a different and ſuperior principle. We will not evade the queſtion; for it has been the ſubject of our anxious inquiry, on an extenſive ſcale. We would, therefore, define the diſcriminating mark of this additional principle to be volition: where it is obvious that the means are willed for a certain end, we conſider the matter as of a ſuperior kind, deriving that ſuperiority from ſomething added of a very different nature; and this addition we perceive in the loweſt portions of the animal kingdom, generally, if not univerſally, connected with an internal circulation by continuous veſſels.

With theſe explanations, we ſhall proceed to our author's ſection on the production of ideas, in which he properly leaves the immaterial inquiries to the theologiſt, and conſiders, by the term 'ſpirit of animation,' only that animal life which we poſſeſs in common with the brutes, and, in ſome degree, even with vegetables. We ſhall limit it, however, to animal life. He ſpeaks firſt of the touch; then of motion, time, place, ſpace, and number. The poſition, that the ſpirit of animation poſſeſſes 'figure,' is ſupported rather by a play of words than by argument; for, though it is connected with the medulla of the brain and nerves, and by that connection confined with reſpect to *its* figure, yet in a ſeparate ſtate (and in this only can we ſpeak of it) nothing can be predicated of its form, dimenſions, or any other material property. On the penetrability of matter, he ſeems not exactly to underſtand father Boſcovich's idea. That no two bodies can exiſt in the ſame kind of ſpace, is not true; for the paſſage of the electric fluid through iron is a proof of the contrary poſition; but they exiſt in the ſame ſpace, by the rarer fluid paſſing through the pores of the denſer; and it does not therefore follow, that beings may exiſt without poſſeſſing the property of ſolidity. It is only true, that ſubſtances may exiſt without giving reſiſtance, our criterion of ſolidity, and that reſiſtance may ſometimes be given where ſolid bodies, in ſtrictneſs of ſpeech, do not exiſt. This error expoſes the author's inquiry to ſome difficulty. We conſider it as by no means certain, that ſome common property muſt exiſt between this ſpirit and the organ to be moved, or between the impreſſion and the idea excited.

In all collateral inquiries, we can only obſerve a reſiſtance, which changes the uſual current (probably of fluids); and, in ſenſation, we can trace nothing beyond it. This vague and general idea will not go far in the explanation; yet human ingenuity has not proceeded farther. The neceſſity and exiſtence, however, of external objects, are evinced by this circumſtance, that the ideas excited in rêveries and dreams are only repetitions of ſenſible impreſſions from external objects, weakened, diſtorted, or differently combined.

Our inveſtigator, in explaining the different ſenſations, diſtinguiſhes that of heat from an impreſſion on the organ of touch only. He ſuſpects, though his reaſons are not ſatisfactory, that nerves are adapted to the conveyance of the ſenſe of heat, different from thoſe which convey other impreſſions on the ſurface; and the error ſeems to ariſe from this circumſtance, that heat is ſometimes a ſenſation of conſciouſneſs.

The ſection 'on Inſtinct' we intended to examine very fully; but it will be ſufficient to purſue the outlines of the eſſay, marking its diſcriminating features, and what may be ſtyled its ſyſtematic tendency. We may recommend this ſection as highly intereſting and entertaining: the collection of facts is extenſive, and the facts themſelves are well ſelected. We differ from Dr. Darwin only in his concluſion. We have diſtinguiſhed inſtinct from reaſon, by repreſenting the former as ſuited to general circumſtances, but incapable of accommodating itſelf to new ſituations or particular emergencies. He ſpeaks, however, of inſtinct, as a principle aware of the end, and accommodating itſelf to the means. Our objections to his inſtances, we muſt compriſe under a few general heads; or, inſtead of an article, we might write a volume. 1. He conſiders, in the human ſubject, many motions as ariſing from pleaſure and pain, which may more certainly be referred to the conſtruction of the frame. A child may writhe from uneaſineſs; but he would not breathe except from the ſtimulus of air. He does not ſwallow from having previouſly ſwallowed the *liquor amnii*, but from the ſtructure of the pharynx; which, by exciting the action of its upper part, brings on the ſubſequent train of motions. Thus a perſon, almoſt inſenſible, if a fluid is put far back into the fauces, will exert the action of deglutition; and this is not the fruit of aſſociation, ſince aſſociation implies conſciouſneſs.—2. Under the term *inſtinct*, the doctor notices acquired habits and imitations; and what is uſually called inſtinct, he refers to imitation. Yet the faithful Sparrman mentions the extreme terror of his horſe, at the ſilent approach of the lion,—a beaſt which he had never ſeen, and from which he could not apprehend danger; and we once obſerved a ſublime and almoſt horrible ſilence in a moment ſucceed the chearful notes of numerous birds, when,

looking round, we discovered a kite soaring at a little distance, —a bird that was very uncommon in the part of the world where we then were, and from which few or any could have had experience of danger. Animals, undoubtedly, take hints, and imitate other species as well as their own.—3. The circumstance in which we chiefly look for instinct in animals, —the means of taking care of their future young,—this writer refers to prior recollection and imitation. It is not, we allow, the returning sun that animates birds, but an internal principle, producing that irritation which incites them to pair. What urges the bird to build its nest at this time rather than at another, is this internal sensation: but the bird is at least the first time without experience. How then does it connect its feelings with the necessary care of a future offspring? Swine also, which prepare their straw with peculiar care, cannot connect their unwieldy state with their living productions, till numerous farrows have taught them the association. Birds and other animals, observes our author, prepare these nests from recollection of those in which they were fed and cherished. We believe, on the contrary, that, in all young animals, observation is very imperfect, and recollection very weak. We have seen the fondled lamb and puppy, in a few days, forget the hand to which they owed their food; and we can scarcely suppose the less sensible bird to observe, at the same period, the structure of its bed, so as, after two or three years, to imitate it. If an occasional deviation, when the circumstances are different, be considered as a proof of reason, the great question would recur, why, in general, even in inconvenient situations, they are so uniform and constant. The sow, indeed, and some birds, are capable of learning. To the sagacity and the docility of the former, noticed by Dr. Darwin, we can add our own observations; and we know that if a pig is once taught to confide in his master, he is particularly tractable. Birds are not equally docile; and they seldom distinguish even those who feed them. We, therefore, trust less to their *reason*; and, though we do not look on the neglect of the cuckoo for her young as necessary '*instinct*,' according to the triumphant sneer of Dr. Darwin, we consider it as proceeding from carelessness and stupidity. Mere instinct teaches them to provide foster-mothers for their young; and it also leads them, with little discrimination, to adopt a nest which will scarcely ever contain more than a single bird. The rest of the brood (for the cuckoo always lays more than *one* egg) are therefore destroyed. Fish also must not be supposed aware of their situation, when they make such great exertions to gain the rivers. It is much more probable,—for fish possess much less docility than even birds,—that they find the sea-water unsuitable to their feelings, and endeavour to escape as far as possible from it.

The facts which reſpect the catenation of motions are well connected and correctly deſcribed; and thoſe relating to ſleep, rêverie, vertigo, and drunkenneſs, are highly worthy of attentive peruſal.

During ſleep, the voluntary motions are ſuſpended, though the volition continues to act with unimpaired vigour; for, in our dreams, we are conſcious of the will, but uſually feel a diſappointment from the want of power. In fact, all the active mental powers are weakened; but they are not wholly ſuſpended; for perſons may often experience recollection, ſometimes a ſmall degree of invention, little exertions of contrivance, and ſome portion of judgment. In this ſtate, however, the invention and judgment are undoubtedly weak, and the reaſoning faculty imperfect. Dr. Darwin has ingeniouſly ſuggeſted a final cauſe for ſome remaining mental exertions, viz. to prevent the accumulation of ſenſorial power; and he has ſupported it by the following facts.

'When we are forcibly waked at midnight from profound ſleep, our eyes are much dazzled with the light of the candle for a minute or two, after there has been ſufficient time allowed for the contraction of the iris; which is owing to the accumulation of ſenſorial power in the organ of viſion during its ſtate of leſs activity. But when we have dreamt much of viſible objects, this accumulation of ſenſorial power in the organ of viſion is leſſened or prevented, and we awake in the morning without being dazzled with the light, after the iris has had time to contract itſelf. This is a matter of great curioſity, and may be thus tried by any one in the day-light. Cloſe your eyes, and cover them with your hat; think for a minute on a tune, which you are accuſtomed to, and endeavour to ſing it with as little activity of mind as poſſible. Suddenly uncover and open your eyes, and in one ſecond of time the iris will contract itſelf, but you will perceive the day more luminous for ſeveral ſeconds, owing to the accumulation of ſenſorial power in the optic nerve.

'Then again cloſe and cover your eyes, and think intenſely on a cube of ivory two inches diameter, attending firſt to the north and ſouth ſides of it, and then to the other four ſides of it; then get a clear image in your mind's eye of all the ſides of the ſame cube coloured red; and then of it coloured green; and then of it coloured blue; laſtly, open your eyes as in the former experiment, and after the firſt ſecond of time allowed for the contraction of the iris, you will not perceive any increaſe of the light of the day, or dazzling; becauſe now there is no accumulation of ſenſorial power in the optic nerve; that having been expended by its action in thinking over viſible objects.

'This experiment is not eaſy to be made at firſt, but by a few patient trials the fact appears very certain; and ſhews clearly, that our ideas of imagination are repetitions of the motions of the nerve,

which were originally occaſioned by the ſtimulus of external bodies; becauſe they equally expend the ſenſorial power in the organ of ſenſe: which is analogous to our being as much fatigued by thinking as by labour.' Vol. i. p. 206.

We may obſerve, in this place, that the diſcovery of accumulated and exhauſted irritability appears to us to be of the higheſt importance, and generally applicable in health and diſeaſe. We fear, however, that it may be carried too far, and, like other good principles, be neglected in conſequence of incongruous application. With reſpect to the preſent inſtance, whatever be the ſenſorial accumulation in irritable fibres, it is apparently not true in thoſe motions which are *connected* with intellectual functions. The mind, when in a ſtate of torpor, recovers its activity by ſlow degrees; and, though moderate reſt invigorates the mental powers, an exceſs of it will weaken them. This ſtriking fact will be a formidable objection to our author's ſyſtem, if applied to what we call the operations of the mind; for we obſerve that he ſpeaks of mental exertions, though his inſtance relates only to viſion. We by no means conſider them as on the ſame footing; and this fact proves that they are not ſo. We ought not to ſay that the confuſion was deſigned; yet to derive the functions of the mind and body from the ſame material ſource, ſeems to be at times the object of this writer. Upon the whole, we highly commend the ſection 'on Sleep.' — We ſhall ſubjoin his own recapitulation. By *power* of volition, he means, we ſuppoſe, the effect of volition on the muſcular fibres.

'The following are the characteriſtic circumſtances attending perfect ſleep.

'1. The power of volition is totally ſuſpended.

'2. The trains of ideas cauſed by ſenſation proceed with greater facility and vivacity; but become inconſiſtent with the uſual order of nature. The muſcular motions cauſed by ſenſation continue; as thoſe concerned in our evacuations during infancy, and afterwards in digeſtion, and in priapiſmus.

'3. The irritative muſcular motions continue, as thoſe concerned in the circulation, in ſecretion, in reſpiration. But the irritative ſenſual motions, or ideas, are not excited; as the immediate organs of ſenſe are not ſtimulated into action by external objects, which are excluded by the external organs of ſenſe; which are not in ſleep adapted to their reception by the power of volition, as in our waking hours.

'4. The aſſociate motions continue; but their firſt link is not excited into action by volition, or by external ſtimuli. In all reſpects, except thoſe above mentioned, the three laſt ſenſorial powers are ſomewhat increaſed in energy during the ſuſpenſion of volition, owing to the conſequent accumulation of the ſpirit of animation.' Vol. i. p. 223.

A rêverie is that ſtate, in which, from volition or diſeaſe, the mind is ſo fully engaged with an object, that external ſtimuli have no effect. The voluntary and aſſociate motions continue undiſturbed; while the ſenſitive motions are 'kept conſiſtent,' by the power of volition. A curious caſe of this kind is deſcribed at ſome length.

Vertigo is explained in a new and ingenious manner.

'In learning to walk we judge of the diſtances of the objects, which we approach, by the eye; and by obſerving their perpendicularity determine our own. This circumſtance not having been attended to by the writers on viſion, the diſeaſe called vertigo or dizzineſs has been little underſtood.

'When any perſon loſes the power of muſcular action, whether he is erect or in a ſitting poſture, he ſinks down upon the ground; as is ſeen in fainting fits, and other inſtances of great debility. Hence it follows, that ſome exertion of muſcular power is neceſſary to preſerve our perpendicular attitude. This is performed by proportionally exerting the antagoniſt muſcles of the trunk, neck, and limbs; and if at any time in our locomotions we find ourſelves inclining to one ſide, we either reſtore our equilibrium by the efforts of the muſcles on the other ſide, or by moving one of our feet extend the baſe, which we reſt upon, to the new centre of gravity.

'But the moſt eaſy and habitual manner of determining our want of perpendicularity, is by attending to the apparent motion of the objects within the ſphere of diſtinct viſion; for this apparent motion of objects, when we incline from our perpendicularity, or begin to fall, is as much greater than the real motion of the eye, as the diameter of the ſphere of diſtinct viſion is to our perpendicular height.

'Hence no one, who is hood-winked, can walk in a ſtraight line for a hundred ſteps together; for he inclines ſo greatly, before he is warned of his want of perpendicularity by the ſenſe of touch, not having the apparent motions of ambient objects to meaſure this inclination by, that he is neceſſitated to move one of his feet outwards, to the right or to the left, to ſupport the new centre of gravity, and thus errs from the line he endeavours to proceed in.

'For the ſame reaſon many people become dizzy, when they look from the ſummit of a tower, which is raiſed much above all other objects, as theſe objects are out of the ſphere of diſtinct viſion, and they are obliged to balance their bodies by the leſs accurate feelings of their muſcles.

'There is another curious phenomenon belonging to this place, if the circumjacent viſible objects are ſo ſmall, that we do not diſtinguiſh their minute parts; or ſo ſimilar, that we do not know them from each other; we cannot determine our perpendicularity

by them. Thus in a room hung with a paper, which is coloured over with ſimilar ſmall black lozenges or rhomboids, many people become dizzy; for when they begin to fall, the next and the next lozenge ſucceeds upon the eye; which they miſtake for the firſt, and are not aware, that they have any apparent motion. But if you fix a ſheet of paper, or draw any other figure, in the midſt of theſe lozenges, the charm ceaſes, and no dizzineſs is perceptible.—The ſame occurs, when we ride over a plain covered with ſnow without trees or other eminent objects.' Vol. i. P. 231.

The ſame principle is purſued, and appears to operate, in the different cauſes of vertigo; nor is the explanation leſs ingenious. As theſe ideas of the apparent motion of objects are irritative, and form a chain with the conſtant undulation of indiſtinct ſounds, the movements of our bowels and glands, ſo whatever interrupts the chain, by a change in either link, affects the others. Thus Dr. Darwin explains the ſickneſs from vertigo, and *vice verſâ*; together with ſome other facts of pathology.

To his ſyſtem with regard to drunkenneſs, we cannot fully accede. The *ſtimulus* of opium, &c. which we have uſually called ſedative, we cannot yet admit.

The twenty-ſecond ſection is intended to explain the ſources of the pleaſure derived from repetition; and the principal one is the accumulation of ſenſorial power; but this is expanded in a way which we cannot wholly approve, as we differ from our author in ſome of his preliminary poſitions. We equally differ from him on the ſubject of imitation, which ſeems indefenſible in every part; and even in point of fact, he is ſometimes inaccurate.

As we now approach what may be more ſtrictly ſtyled the medical part of this work, we ſhall for the preſent deſiſt.

[*To be continued.*]

The Henriade, an Epic Poem, in Ten Cantos. Tranſlated from the French of Voltaire, into Engliſh Rhyme, with large hiſtorical and critical Notes. Part I. 4*to.* 10*s.* 6*d.* No Publiſher's Name. 1797.

FROM the Preface it appears that this work is publiſhed by a female emigrant. It is not mentioned as her tranſlation; and, indeed, it is not probable that a foreigner ſhould poſſeſs ſufficient knowledge of our language to execute a work of ſuch magnitude and ſuch merit as the preſent verſion. But we hope and believe that the ſale of this book will be more extenſive, when it is known that it is publiſhed to alleviate diſtreſs.

Inſtead of ſecuring celebrity to the name of its author, the Henriade is remarkable only as the production of Voltaire. The ſwarm of heroic writers who appeared in France during the laſt century, were forgotten, or remembered only to their ſhame, when the Henriade was publiſhed. The French wanted a national epic poem; and, though this piece diſcovered not more imagination than ſome of its predeceſſors, it was certainly more regular and leſs abſurd. The ſubject and the author were alike popular; and Voltaire was extolled (but not by the beſt judges) as the rival of Virgil and of Taſſo.

Our preſent buſineſs is with the tranſlation, not with the merits or defects of the original poem. Two verſions have already appeared in this country: both were bad, and both are forgotten. One of theſe was the labour of poor Edward Purdon, whoſe miſerable life is recorded in the epitaph written upon him by Goldſmith. We may venture to aſſert that the preſent work will be more fortunate; and we ſcarcely expect that any future tranſlation of the Henriade will ſurpaſs it. It opens thus:

'The chief who reign'd o'er Gallia's realm I ſing,
By glorious conqueſt, as by birth, a king;
Who from misfortune learn'd a monarch's care,
To curb the factious, the ſubmiſſive ſpare,
And Spain, the League, and haughty Mayne o'erthrown,
Made France, her conqu'ror and her father own.
Deſcend, bright Truth! from heaven's æthereal vault,
Guide my weak pen, give vigour to my thought,
Accuſtom kings thy warning voice to bear,
'Tis thine to dictate, as 'tis theirs to hear;
'Tis thine to bid contending nations know,
"What dire effects from civil diſcord flow:"
Tell how her ſtandard on our plains ſhe ſpread,
How princes err'd, and hapleſs ſubjects bled.
And, heavenly Truth! if e'er thou didſt deſcend
Thy voice with Fiction's ſilver ſounds to blend;
If e'er that lofty forehead ſtoop'd to wear
The flow'ry wreath her graceful hands prepare;
If from her ſhade thy luſtre brighter ſhine,
Let her with me her magic garland twine,
And lend what ſportive Fancy can deviſe,
Thy modeſt charms to deck, but not diſguiſe.' P. 1.

There is an unpleaſant cacophony in the fifth line, which might have been avoided by writing it thus:

And Mayne, Iberia, and the League o'erthrown.

The tenth line is weaker than the correſponding paſſage in the original:

C'eſt à toi d'annoncer *ce qu'ils doivent* apprendre.

As a better ſpecimen, we ſelect perhaps the fineſt paſſage in the poem:

'The zealot youth, too eaſily deceiv'd,
As Heav'n's command the voice of Hell believ'd!
Embrac'd with extaſy the fatal ſword,
Proſtrate to God, his ſacred aid implor'd.
The frantic demon all his ſoul poſſeſt,
And dire devotion ſteel'd his ardent breaſt.
Conſcience, corrupted judge, with vice combin'd,
Falſe to his charge, miſleads his erring mind;
The calm of innocence to guilt beſtows,
The murd'rer's heart with holy tranſport glows;
He wearies Heav'n with ſacrilegious prayers,
A modeſt air his tranquil fury wears;
While virtue's pureſt form, his looks reveal,
His humble ſackcloth, hides th' infernal ſteel!
He goes, and conſcious of his dread deſign,
His friends ſtrew flow'rs, triumphant chaplets twine;
Far as the gate his ſteps rever'd attend,
Bleſs the bold deed, adviſe, exhort, commend;
Amid their guardian ſaints his name invoke,
His ſhrines already with their incenſe ſmoke.
Not with more zeal Chriſt's new diſciples glow'd,
When the firſt martyrs ſeal'd their faith with blood!
Nor firmer faith, nor hope more lively knew,
When crowns immortal holding to their view,
They kiss'd their ſteps, and join'd in fervent pray'r,
Led them to tortures which they long'd to ſhare.
Too oft alike, to worldly eyes, appear
The graceleſs bigot and the ſaint ſincere;
Men have their blood for truth and falſehood ſpilt,
Its martyrs error has, its heroes guilt.
So frail the judges which our merits ſcan,
The greateſt wretch oft ſeems the greateſt man.' P. 119.

In theſe lines the couplet

Combien le cœur de l'homme eſt ſoumis à l'erreur!
Clement goûtoit alors un paiſible bonheur

is dilated and weakened; and the general reflection, introduced by the French writer with peculiar propriety, is omitted in the tranſlation.

This volume is enriched with copious notes, judiciouſly compiled. The tranſlation is, in general, executed with ſkill and judgment; and we look forward with pleaſure to its completion.

Medical Inquiries and Obſervations. By Benjamin Ruſh, M.D. Profeſſor of the Inſtitutes of Medicine, and of Clinical Practice, in the Univerſity of Pennſylvania. Vol. II. 6s. *Boards.* Dilly.

THE firſt part of theſe "Inquiries" (noticed in our 68th volume, p. 341) was not, we think, ſuperior in originality of remark, or in utility, to that which now lies before us. Three of the eſſays, contained in the preſent collection, have already occurred to us. The "Inquiry into the Influence of Phyſical Cauſes on the Moral Faculty," and that which reſpects the "Influence of Spirituous Liquors upon the Human Body," have been publiſhed ſeparately. The Inquiry into the Cauſes of the Increaſe of Bilious and Intermitting Fevers in Pennſylvania we noticed in our review of the ſecond volume of the American Tranſactions *. The other eſſays we ſhall examine in their order.

The firſt involves our author's more expanded ideas on the nature and cure of conſumptions. In the former volume, he gave only a ſlight hint of his ſyſtem. He is of opinion, that phthiſis originates in debility; but his arguments do not carry conviction. Of the great variety of cauſes, which induce debility, we find none ultimately productive of conſumption, unleſs there be a marked prediſpoſition, and a conſtitution peculiarly characteriſed. Debility, therefore, is no more than an occaſional cauſe; and it is ſo only, when we have proved inflammatory fever to ariſe from a debilitating cauſe. If, however, this be allowed, another circumſtance will remain to be proved, that it is the debility, and not the re-action of the ſyſtem, which produces conſumption. Theſe obſervations are applicable to the writer's general arguments. We ſhall now tranſcribe his diagnoſtic marks of conſumption, in its firſt ſtage.

'I ſhall briefly enumerate theſe ſymptoms. They are a ſlight fever encreaſed by the leaſt exerciſe,—a burning and dryneſs in the palms of the hands, more eſpecially towards evening,—rheumy eyes upon waking from ſleep,—an encreaſe of urine,—a dryneſs of the ſkin, more eſpecially of the feet in the morning,—an occaſional flushing in one, and ſometimes in both cheeks,—a hoarſeneſs,—a ſlight or acute pain in the breaſt,—a fixed pain in one ſide, or ſhooting pains in both ſides,—head-ach,—occaſional ſick and fainty fits,—a deficiency of appetite, and a general indiſpoſition to exerciſe or motion of every kind.' P. 107.

* See Crit. Rev. Vol. LXIV. p. 440.

If any conſequence can be drawn from a ſeries of ſymptoms, we may ſafely aſſert, that theſe prove not only fever, but ſome inflammation, to have taken place, particularly in the lungs. Though we are ready to admit, that fever originates in debility, it is certain, when the fever is formed, that ſymptoms of a different kind take place; and, even in extreme typhi, it it not enough to counteract debility only. In this ſtate, Dr. Ruſh recommends the cold bath, bark, and ſteel: but, as this ſtage is confeſſedly ſucceeded, at no great diſtance, by the inflammatory ſtate, in which he conſtantly and repeatedly bleeds, theſe tonic remedies are more likely to exaſperate than to cure. As, however, in this very early period, the irritability of the arterial ſyſtem is obſervable, it is not improbable, that theſe remedies may ſometimes ſucceed, though without the effect of counteracting the ſuppoſed debility. We have ſometimes found the cold bath carry off ſlight fevers, and ſink the pulſe from 90 to 65*, in conſequence of its exciting a glow, and producing a more equable circulation.

Conſumptions, Dr. Ruſh thinks, are infectious; but he ſuppoſes, that two or three years uſually intervene between receiving the infection and the diſeaſe. It muſt be difficult, however, to eſtabliſh the fact, after ſo conſiderable an interval; yet we dare not abſolutely reject his inſtances, eſpecially as our obſervation has furniſhed ſome ſimilar ones. But, to prevent alarm, we ought to add, that conſumption, if infectious, is very remotely ſo, and never, except from the moſt intimate and long-continued communication. We have remarked alſo, that, when we have ſuſpected the diſeaſe to proceed from infection, it has yielded much more eaſily to remedies.

He divides conſumption, in its progreſs, into the inflammatory, the hectic, and the typhus *ſpecies*: he ſhould have ſaid *ſtages*. The firſt he allows to pervade the others in different degrees. In the cure, his remedies are chiefly directed to inflammation.

In the ſecond ſtage, our author allows that medicines produce little effect: the fever continues unconquered, and unconquerable.

In the third ſtage, he admits, with great propriety, the more ſtimulating balſams, which we ſometimes have begun with ſucceſs in the hectic ſtage. The remarks on ſea air we ſhall tranſcribe, as we believe them, from experience, to be juſt;

* Though a quick pulſe, viz. from 100 to 120, is a conſtant mark of conſumption, Dr. Ruſh obſerves, that the pulſe is ſometimes ſlow, though in very few inſtances. We ſeldom apprehend danger, when the pulſe is little above 90, even in the early ſtages. This rule, however, is not without exception.

adding, however, from the ſame ſource, that the mixture of airs is leſs prejudicial in the autumn than in the ſpring.

'Situations expoſed to the ſea, ſhould be carefully avoided; for it is a ſingular fact, that while conſumptive perſons are benefited by the ſea air, when they breathe it on the ocean, they are always injured by that portion of it which they breathe on the ſea-ſhore. I ſhall not pauſe to inquire, why a mixture of land and ſea-air is ſo hurtful in the conſumption, and at the ſame time ſo agreeable to perſons in health, and ſo medicinal in many other diſeaſes, but ſhall diſmiſs this head by adding a fact which was communicated to me by Dr. Matthew Irvine of South Carolina, and that is, that thoſe ſituations which are in the neighbourhood of bays or rivers, where the ſalt and freſh waters mix their ſtreams together, are more unfavourable to conſumptive patients than the ſea-ſhore; and therefore ſhould be more carefully avoided by them in exchanging city for country air.' P. 132.

'Much has been ſaid in favour of ſea voyages in conſumptions. In the mild degrees of the diſorder they certainly have done ſervice, —but I ſuſpect the relief given, or the cures performed by them, ſhould be confined chiefly to ſea-faring people, who add to the benefits of a conſtant change of pure air, a ſhare of the invigorating exerciſes of navigating the ſhip. I have frequently heard of conſumptive patients reviving at ſea, probably from the tranſient effects of ſea ſickneſs upon the whole ſyſtem, and growing worſe as ſoon as they came near the end of their voyage. It would ſeem as if the mixture of land and ſea airs was hurtful to the lungs in every ſituation and condition in which it could be applied to them. Nor is this peculiar and morbid operation of land and ſea airs upon the human body confined only to conſumptive people. I croſſed the Atlantic ocean in the year 1766, with a ſea captain, who announced to his paſſengers the agreeable news that we were near the Britiſh coaſt before any diſcovery had been made of our ſituation by ſounding, or by a change in the colour of the water. Upon aſking him upon what he founded his opinion, he ſaid that he had been ſneezing, which, he added, was the ſign of an approaching cold, and that in the courſe of upwards of twenty years, he had never made the land (to uſe the ſeaman's phraſe) without being affected in a ſimilar manner. I have viſited many ſick people in Philadelphia ſoon after their arrival from ſea, who have informed me, that they had enjoyed good health during the greateſt part of their voyage, and that they had contracted their indiſpoſitions after they came within ſight of the land.' P. 147.

The remarks on exerciſe and diet reſerve attention; but we cannot particularly notice them.

The ſecond eſſay is on dropſies; and the doctor's great object is to ſhow, that the moſt uſeful remedies act by depreſſing the ſyſtem. All the cauſes of dropſy are allowed by him to

be debilitating, and the diſeaſe to conſiſt chiefly in debility; but he thinks that an increaſed action of the arterial ſyſtem frequently ſupervenes, which muſt be reduced. In this way, he accounts for the good effects of nitre, cream of tartar, foxglove, the depreſſing paſſions, the action of emetics, &c. In ſome inſtances even bleeding has been uſeful, and he explains its utility on the ſame principle. He admits, at the ſame time, of an oppoſite ſpecies, which requires tonics and ſtimulants of every kind, and of a mixed kind, which partakes of both cauſes. If this diſtinction can be followed, and acted on with advantage, it will greatly elucidate the practice in dropſies: at preſent, it is little more than a hint, though a very important one. We ſhall not loſe ſight of it, but take a future opportunity of returning to it, when we have purſued it in the courſe of our practice.

In the eſſay which relates to the hydrocephalus internus, the author follows Dr. Quin; but adds, we think, one important ſtep to the inquiry. He conſiders the internal dropſy of the brain to be the conſequence of fever, and ſome inflammation of that organ, terminating only in effuſion; and, as he would call phthiſis pneumonicula, ſo he affixes the appellation of phrenicula to the ſubject of this eſſay. The only practical improvement, which he makes in the cure, is the uſe of early bleeding. Mercury he confines to that ſtage, where inflammation is at an end. His caſes are pointed and well choſen; and the new remedy ſeems to have been ſucceſsful.

The meaſles of 1789, which are next deſcribed, ſeem, in almoſt every reſpect, anomalous. During this epidemic, there was alſo a morbillous fever, attended with ſlight partial efflorescences. This circumſtance ſhould render us cautious in declaring that a child has had the meaſles, unleſs the diſeaſe is general and in ſome degree regular.

The influenzas of 1789, 1790, and 1791, offer nothing of importance, except the remark that theſe, with other contagious diſorders, more frequently occaſion abortion, than much more violent diſeaſes, in which contagion has no ſhare.

In another eſſay, ſore legs are examined. Dr. Ruſh conſiders this complaint as a diſeaſe of the whole ſyſtem; and his arguments are, on the whole, ſatisfactory. In this diſeaſe, the pulſe ſhould be carefully attended to; and, when the ſores ariſe from too great action, even bleeding is, he thinks, uſeful. All the ſedative medicines and applications are referable to the ſame head.

The eſſay on old age contains many curious facts relating to the phyſiology and pathology of the extreme periods of life. Our obſervations have ſometimes differed from thoſe of Dr. Ruſh; yet, in a different climate, circumſtances muſt of courſe vary.

In the diſeaſes of old age, as well as in almoſt every one of which this phyſician treats, we find bleeding recommended. We do not cenſure him on this account; for his ability and his integrity are equally unexceptionable. In this country, however, his advice muſt be followed with caution; and we urge this remark with the greater earneſtneſs, ſince we find that ſome of the younger practitioners exerciſe the lancet with too little diſcrimination. Let them take the counſel of a veteran, who has erred like them, but learned, probably more early, to diſtruſt himſelf, to examine his own conduct, and be a rigid judge of his own practice. In this iſland, few diſeaſes will bear bleeding; ſtill fewer a repetition of this remedy: the *vis vitæ* is ſoon exhauſted; and, when nature is required to finiſh the work, ſhe is no longer capable of any active efforts.

Memoirs of the Author of a Vindication of the Rights of Woman. By William Godwin. 12*mo.* 3*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Johnſon. 1798.

Poſthumous Works of the Author of a Vindication of the Rights of Woman. 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 14*s. Boards.* Johnſon. 1798.

IT will be readily conceded by every perſon who has peruſed Mrs. Godwin's writings with attention and candour, that ſhe was not only poſſeſſed of great genius, which directed her to original habits of thinking, but had alſo an undaunted and maſculine ſpirit, which encouraged her to declare her thoughts without reſerve. Her ſentiments, however, in ſome important reſpects, are too much at variance with thoſe which have been generally adopted; and, although we may probably be ranked with the votaries of the old ſyſtem, whoſe dark minds the rays of new philoſophy have never been able to penetrate, we are not afraid to expreſs our opinion that the doctrines upon which ſhe has principally inſiſted are unfriendly to human happineſs, and, if practically followed, would injure the ſex they were intended to vindicate and protect. It is not therefore without diſguſt that we have read theſe '*Memoirs*,' and ſome of the poſthumous pieces, becauſe we are convinced that they are not calculated to do honour to her memory, although this may have been the ſincere intention of the writer and editor.

In the *Memoirs*, we are preſented with a few *memoranda* of Mrs. Godwin's early life, conſiſting chiefly of thoſe promiſes of future celebrity which perſons of genius uſually exhibit, and of various inſtances of an extraordinary benevolence of diſpoſition: on this part of her character the reader will dwell with pleaſure. Some information is added reſpecting her writings, and the motives which induced her to publiſh them;

and a character is given of each, drawn, indeed, with a friendly pen, and ſurcharged with encomiums from which many wiſe and good perſons will not ſcruple to diſſent. In pourtraying the character of Mrs. Godwin, the writer may be pardoned for indulging in partiality. He appears to appreciate very highly the excellence of which he has been untimely deprived; and as he wrote on the cloſe of ſuch a valued life, it would have been almoſt impoſſible for him to write without the fervour of affection. The qualities for which the deceaſed was moſt eminent in private life, were a warm and benevolent heart, and ſtrong maternal feelings. We are leſs pleaſed with what the author conſiders as *firmneſs* in executing whatever ſhe undertook, and in braving all dangers in the purſuit of an object which her *own mind* repreſented to her as praiſeworthy *. That *independence* which induces perſons of original thinking to execute every plan which their own imagination has ſuggeſted, to conſider it as excellent becauſe uncommon, and to deſpiſe the forms and cuſtoms of ſociety, moſt commonly *does* and always *may* end in diſappointment, againſt which mere obſtinacy affords no protection. We ſhall probably, therefore, differ very much from the writer of theſe Memoirs, in mentioning the conduct and principles of Mrs. Godwin, as far as the ſexual intercourſe is concerned, rather as a warning than a pattern.

Paſſing over her early years, we come to her appearance in public life as an author, whoſe company was courted for the charms of her converſation and manners, which, we may from perſonal knowledge affirm, were generally faſcinating. But here Mr. Godwin obtrudes an incident which we cannot view as creditable to her character. We allude to her paſſion for a married man, whoſe name is given without reſerve (Mr. Fuſeli, the artiſt). This flame increaſed with ſuch violence, that ſhe thought proper to quit all opportunities of beholding the object.

'She had, at firſt, conſidered it as reaſonable and judicious, to cultivate what I may be permitted to call, a Platonic affection for him; but ſhe did not, in the ſequel, find all the ſatisfaction in this plan, which ſhe had originally expected from it. It was in vain that ſhe enjoyed much pleaſure in his ſociety, and that ſhe enjoyed it frequently. Her ardent imagination was continually conjuring up pictures of the happineſs ſhe ſhould have found, if fortune had favoured their more intimate union. She felt herſelf formed for domeſtic affection, and all thoſe tender charities, which men of ſenſibility have conſtantly treated as the deareſt band of human ſociety. General converſation and ſociety could not ſatisfy her. P. 97.

* This is the cant of modern philoſophy, often a handſome diſguiſe to give appearance of heroiſm to old-faſhioned pride and ſelf-will. REV.

To 'ſnap the chain of this aſſociation,' ſhe went over to France near the cloſe of the year 1792; and, about *four months* after her arrival in Paris, 'ſhe entered,' we are informed, 'into that ſpecies of connection, for which her heart ſecretly panted.' This was a connection of the moſt intimate nature, not preceded by the forms of marriage. 'She was now arrived at the ſituation, which, for two or three preceding years, her *reaſon* had pointed out to her as affording the moſt ſubſtantial proſpect of happineſs.' Her *reaſon*, however, pointed wrong in this inſtance, as ſhe was afterward moſt baſely and cruelly abandoned by the object of her affections. It was certainly a connection begun in paſſion and imprudence; but the conduct of the perſon in whom ſhe had ſo ſacredly confided, cannot be mentioned in terms of indignation too ſtrong. All her philoſophy, however, deſerted her on this occaſion. She made two attempts at ſuicide, the latter of which is thus related.

'The agony of her mind determined her; and that determination gave her a ſort of deſperate ſerenity. She reſolved to plunge herſelf in the Thames; and, not being ſatisfied with any ſpot nearer to London, ſhe took a boat, and rowed to Putney. Her firſt thought had led her to Batterſea-bridge, but ſhe found it too public. It was night when ſhe arrived at Putney, and by that time had begun to rain with great violence. The rain ſuggeſted to her the idea of walking up and down the bridge, till her clothes were thoroughly drenched and heavy with the wet, which ſhe did for half an hour without meeting a human being. She then leaped from the top of the bridge, but ſtill ſeemed to find a difficulty in ſinking, which ſhe endeavoured to counteract by preſſing her clothes cloſely round her. After ſome time ſhe became inſenſible; but ſhe always ſpoke of the pain ſhe underwent as ſuch, that, though ſhe could afterwards have determined upon almoſt any other ſpecies of voluntary death, it would have been impoſſible for her to reſolve upon encountering the ſame ſenſations again. I am doubtful, whether this is to be aſcribed to the mere nature of ſuffocation, or was not rather owing to the preternatural action of a deſperate ſpirit.' P. 132.

Mr. Godwin ſubjoins ſome pertinent reflections on ſuicide. This incident, however, is not altogether conſiſtent with the character given of her in a previous chapter of theſe Memoirs, in which he attributes to her 'a firmneſs of mind, an unconquerable greatneſs of ſoul, by which, after a *ſhort internal* ſtruggle, ſhe was accuſtomed to riſe above difficulties and ſuffering.'

Having overcome two ardent paſſions, ſhe formed a *third*, of which the biographer was the object. A period only of *ſix months* intervenes in this caſe; but, ſays the author, al-

though 'it was only ſix months ſince ſhe had reſolutely baniſhed every thought of Mr. Imlay (the former lover), it was at leaſt *eighteen* that he *ought* to have been baniſhed, and would have been baniſhed, had it not been for her ſcrupulous pertinacity in determining to leave no meaſure untried *to regain him.*'

This connection, likewiſe, was begun without the nuptial ceremonies; but, after ſome months, the marriage took place; the principal reaſon was that ſhe was pregnant, and 'unwilling to incur that ſecluſion from the ſociety of many valuable and excellent individuals, which cuſtom awards in caſes of this ſort.' But it did not produce the deſired effect. Some, who viſited her or were viſited by her, and who regarded her as the injured object of Mr. Imlay's indifference, were not pleaſed to beſtow their countenance on one who was ſo eager to run into the arms of another man, and alike informally. Mr. Godwin takes this opportunity of cenſuring the *prudery* of theſe *nice* people in terms of ſeverity — with what juſtice our readers may determine. The happineſs of this connection, however, was tranſient; and an account of her laſt illneſs cloſes theſe Memoirs, which are written with neatneſs and ſometimes with elegance of ſtyle, and with an affectionate regard for the loſt object, with which we ſhould not have interfered, if it did not ſeem to amount to a vindication of principles inconſiſtent with the delicacy of the female ſex, and the welfare of ſociety.

Of the *Poſthumous Works*, the principal is entitled 'The Wrongs of Woman; or Maria, a Fragment:' its main object was 'the deſire of exhibiting the miſery and oppreſſion, peculiar to women, that ariſe out of the partial laws and cuſtoms of ſociety.' In this we find a vigorous diſplay of fancy, and often a richneſs of imagery in pourtraying the paſſions, and eſpecially the diſtreſſes of certain ſituations, which convince us that Mrs. Godwin's particular *forte* was novel-writing — not, as commonly underſtood, a mere tiſſue of chit-chat, lovers' quarrels, and parents' cruelty, all ending in a ſplendid wedding and a great fortune — but a tale of intereſt and intellect, leading to important leſſons of life, becauſe built on the realities of life, and embelliſhed only where embelliſhment is neceſſary to catch the attention and gratify taſte.

Of the preſent work, as it is merely a fragment, it is impoſſible to give a decided judgment. Critically ſpeaking, however, we diſcover an error of much importance in the firſt part of it, which is ſaid to have received the author's finiſhing touch. The object, as we have already ſtated, was to exhibit the miſery and oppreſſion, peculiar to women, that ariſe out of the partial *laws* and *cuſtoms* of *ſociety*. But, accord-

ing to Maria's ſtory, the partial laws and cuſtoms of ſociety had no concern with the *cauſe* of her oppreſſion. She married Mr. Venables, becauſe ſhe was in love with him, and had not ſufficient diſcernment to perceive that his love was feigned, and his character deteſtable. No laws of ſociety, nor the abſence of all law, could prevent a misfortune of this kind, even if the connection had not been cemented by a marriage. In the next place, this bad huſband procures her to be conveyed to a mad-houſe, while under the influence of a ſoporific draught. Now, by the laws of what ſociety can a man do this? Not by thoſe of this country, in which, however, the ſcene is laid. The ſame may be ſaid of his locking her up in her room, and her being obliged to make her eſcape, as if from a gaol; and the ſame might be ſaid if he had beaten or half-murdered her. Nothing of this ariſes from the laws of ſociety. Why then ſhould any perſons over-charge the picture of real oppreſſions from the laws and cuſtoms of ſociety, by fictions which tend to diſcredit the whole?

But, in our progreſs, we arrive at what we conſider as the ſpecific object of the ſtory, the *laws of marriage* as now conſtituted. And here we are enabled, by an extract of no great length, to give an idea of the author's ſyſtem of reform.

'A woman neglected by her huſband, or whoſe manners form a ſtriking contraſt with his, will always have men on the watch to ſoothe and flatter her. Beſides, the forlorn ſtate of a neglected woman, not deſtitute of perſonal charms, is particularly intereſting, and rouſes that ſpecies of pity, which is ſo near akin, it eaſily ſlides into love. A man of feeling thinks not of ſeducing, he is himſelf ſeduced by all the nobleſt emotions of his ſoul. He figures to himſelf all the ſacrifices a woman of ſenſibility muſt make, and every ſituation in which his imagination places her, touches his heart, and fires his paſſions. Longing to take to his boſom the ſhorn lamb, and bid the drooping buds of hope revive, benevolence changes into paſſion: and ſhould he then diſcover that he is beloved, honour binds him faſt, though foreſeeing that he may afterwards be obliged to pay ſevere damages to the man, who never appeared to value his wife's ſociety, till he found that there was a chance of his being indemnified for the loſs of it.

'Such are the partial laws enacted by men; for, only to lay a ſtreſs on the dependent ſtate of a woman in the grand queſtion of the comforts ariſing from the poſſeſſion of property, ſhe is [even in this article] much more injured by the loſs of the huſband's affection, than he by that of his wife; yet where is ſhe, condemned to the ſolitude of a deſerted home, to look for a compenſation from the woman, who ſeduces him from her? She cannot drive an unfaithful huſband from his houſe, nor ſeparate, or tear, his children from him, however culpable he may be; and he, ſtill the

master of his own fate, enjoys the smiles of a world, that would brand her with infamy, did she, seeking consolation, venture to retaliate.

'These remarks are not dictated by experience; but merely by the compassion I feel for many amiable women, the outlaws of the world. For myself, never encouraging any of the advances that were made to me, my lovers dropped off like the untimely shoots of spring. I did not even coquet with them; because I found, on examining myself, I could not coquet with a man without loving him a little; and I perceived that I should not be able to stop at the line of what are termed innocent freedoms, did I suffer any. My reserve was then the consequence of delicacy. Freedom of conduct has emancipated many women's minds; but my conduct has most rigidly been governed by my principles, till the improvement of my understanding has enabled me to discern fallacy of prejudices at war with nature and reason.' Vol. ii. p. 35.

Against these principles, we trust that it is not necessary to enter our protest. They are alike repugnant to religion, sense, and decency.

This fragment, on which farther remarks are unnecessary, occupies the first two volumes of the Posthumous Works.

In the third and fourth volumes, the author appears in a more amiable light. We meet with a series of letters, addressed to Mr. Imlay, and we cannot speak of them in more appropriate language than that of the editor. They contain 'the finest examples of the language of sentiment and passion ever presented to the world.' It is impossible to read them without feeling a lively interest in the sufferings of the writer. Hard must that heart be upon which they could make no impression.

Various small pieces are added, of which we prefer the 'Letter on the present Character of the French Nation,' and the 'Essay on Poetry,' &c. Some of the letters addressed to Mr. Johnson show an excellent talent at that species of composition, although they certainly were never intended for publication.

An Historical Survey of the French Colony in the Island of St. Domingo: comprehending a short Account of its ancient Government, Political State, Population, Productions, and Exports; a Narrative of the Calamities which have desolated the Country ever since the Year 1789, *with some Reflections on their Causes and probable Consequences; and a Detail of the Military Transactions of the British Army in that Island to the End of* 1794. *By Bryan Edwards, Esq. M. P. F. R. S. &c. 4to. 13s. Boards.* Stockdale. 1797.

MR. Edwards states, that in September 1791, when he was at Spanish-town in Jamaica, two French gentlemen were

introduced to him, who had recently arrived from St. Domingo, with information that the negro ſlaves belonging to the French part of that iſland, to the ſuppoſed number of 100,000, had revolted, and were ſpreading death and deſolation over the northern province. They reported that they were deputed by the governor to requeſt the aſſiſtance of troops, &c. The earl of Effingham, then governor of Jamaica, promiſed to furniſh arms and ammunition; and, though he could not conveniently ſend any troops, ſome ſhips were diſpatched, in one of which our author accompanied the French commiſſioners. This was the occaſion of his viſit to the iſland, where he accumulated ſuch a knowledge of its preſent ſtate and hiſtory, as enabled him to compoſe the excellent work now under review.

The appearance of Mr. Edwards, and of the gentlemen of Jamaica who accompanied him, gave ſome conſolation to the peaceable inhabitants of St. Domingo; and the ſtrangers were welcomed by a very affectionate ſpeech from the preſident of the colonial aſſembly. It was ſuppoſed by the coloniſts that Mr. Edwards was an agent from the Engliſh miniſtry, ſent to ſound their inclinations towards the government of Great-Britain, preparatory to an invaſion of the country by a Britiſh armament. Their wiſhes co-operated with this idea; for they imputed all their miſeries to the conduct of the French aſſembly; and the black cockade univerſally took place of the *tricolor* one.

In the firſt chapter of this work, we have the political ſtate of St. Domingo previous to the year 1789. At that time the negroes, who were ſlaves in the iſland, amounted to 480,000. It was in favour of this claſs that Louis XIV. in the year 1685, publiſhed the celebrated edict, known under the title of the *Code Noir*; of which Mr. Edwards remarks, that, although many of its proviſions breathe a ſpirit of tenderneſs and philanthropy, there is this misfortune attending it, which muſt attend all other ſyſtems of the ſame nature, that moſt of its regulations are inapplicable to the condition and ſituation of the colonies in America. With regard to the general treatment of ſlaves in the French iſlands, he affirms, that it is neither much better nor much worſe than in thoſe which belong to Great Britain. If there is any difference, they are better clothed among the French, and are indulged with more animal food among the Engliſh. At this period,

'with all the abuſes ariſing from the licentiouſneſs of power, the corruption of manners, and the ſyſtem of ſlavery, the ſcale evidently preponderated on the favourable ſide; and, in ſpite of political evils, and private grievances, the ſigns of publick proſperity were every where viſible.' P. 12.

The second and third chapters treat of the affairs of the island from the revolution in 1789, to the meeting of the first general colonial assembly, and of the proceedings of that body until its final dissolution, and the embarkation of the members for France, Aug. 1790. In the fourth is an interesting account of the rebellion of Ogé, who was defeated and put to death in March 1791.

'Twenty of Ogé's deluded followers, among them his own brother, were condemned to be hanged. To Ogé himself, and his lieutenant Chavane, a more terrible punishment was allotted:—they were adjudged to be broken alive, and left to perish in that dreadful situation, on the wheel:—a sentence, on which it is impossible to reflect but with mingled emotions of shame, sympathy, indignation, and horror!

'The bold and hardened Chavane met his fate with unusual firmness, and suffered not a groan to escape him during the extremity of his torture: but the fortitude of Ogé deserted him altogether. When sentence was pronounced, he implored mercy with many tears, and an abject spirit. He promised to make great discoveries if his life was spared, declaring that he had an important secret to communicate. A respite of twenty-four hours was accordingly granted; but it was not made known to the publick, at that time, that he divulged any thing of importance. His secret, if any he had, was believed to have died with him.

'It was discovered, however, about nine months afterwards, that this most unfortunate young man had not only made a full confession of the facts that I have related, but also disclosed the dreadful plot in agitation, and the miseries at that moment impending over the colony. His last solemn declarations and dying confession, sworn to and signed by himself the day before his execution, were actually produced; wherein he details at large the measures which the coloured people had fallen upon to excite the negro slaves to rise into rebellion. He points out the chiefs by name; and relates that, notwithstanding his own defeat, a general revolt would actually have taken place in the month of February preceding, if an extraordinary flood of rain, and consequent inundation from the rivers, had not prevented it. He declares that the ringleaders still maintained the same atrocious project, and held their meetings in certain subterranean passages, or caves, in the parish of La Grande Riviere, to which he offers, if his life might be spared, to conduct a body of troops, so that the conspirators might be secured.

'The persons before whom this confession and narrative were made, were the commissioners appointed for the purpose of taking Ogé's examination, by the superior council of the northern province, of which body they were also members. Whether this court (all the members of which were devotedly attached to the

ancient ſyſtem) determined of itſelf to ſuppreſs evidence of ſuch great concern to the colony, or was directed on this occaſion by the ſuperior officers in the adminiſtration of the government, has never been clearly made known. Suppreſſed it certainly was, and the miſerable Ogé hurried to immediate execution; as if to prevent the further communication, and full diſcloſure of ſo weighty a ſecret!

'Chriſtian charity might lead us to ſuppoſe that the commiſſioners by whom Ogé's examination was taken, diſregarded and neglected (rather than ſuppreſſed) his information; conſidering it merely as the ſhallow artifice of a miſerable man to obtain a mitigation of the dreadful puniſhment which awaited him, and utterly unworthy of credit. It does not appear, however, that the commiſſioners made this excuſe for themſelves; and the caution, circumſpection, and ſecrecy which marked their conduct, leave no room for ſuch a ſuppoſition. The planters at large ſcrupled not to declare, that the royaliſts in the colony, and the philanthropick and republican party in the mother country, were equally criminal; and themſelves made victims to the blind purpoſes, and unwarrantable paſſions, of two deſperate and malignant factions.

'Of men who openly and avowedly aimed at the ſubverſion of all good order and ſubordination, we may eaſily credit the worſt; but it will be difficult to point out any principle of rational policy by which the royaliſts could have been influenced to concur in the ruin of ſo noble and beautiful a part of the French empire. Their conduct therefore remains wholly inexplicable, or we muſt admit they were guided by a ſpirit of Machiavelian policy—a principle of refined cunning, which always defeats its own purpoſe. They muſt have encouraged the vain and fallacious idea that ſcenes of bloodſhed, devaſtation, and ruin, in different parts of the French dominions, would induce the great body of the people to look back with regret to their former government, and lead them by degrees to co-operate in the ſcheme of effecting a counter-revolution; regarding the evils of anarchy, as leſs tolerable than the dead repoſe of deſpotiſm. If ſuch were their motives, we can only aſcribe them to that infatuation with which Providence (as wiſe men have obſerved, and hiſtory evinces) blinds a people devoted to deſtruction.' P. 47.

In the two following chapters, the hiſtory proceeds to the *fatal decree of the national aſſembly on the 15th of May*, 1791; and its conſequences are detailed. 'Such a picture of human miſery—ſuch a ſcene of woe preſented itſelf, as no other country, or former age, has admitted.' Our author allows, however, that

'there is too much reaſon to believe that theſe miſeries would have occurred in St. Domingo, in a great degree, even if the pro-

ceedings of the national aſſembly had been more temperate, and if the decree of the 15th of May had never paſſed into a law. The declarations of the dying Ogé ſufficiently point out the miſchief that was meditated, long before that obnoxious decree was promulgated.' P. 64.

He concludes a part of his recital in theſe words.

'To detail the various conflicts, ſkirmiſhes, maſſacres, and ſcenes of ſlaughter, which this exterminating war produced, were to offer a diſguſting and frightful picture;—a combination of horrors;—wherein we ſhould behold cruelties unexampled in the annals of mankind; human blood poured forth in torrents; the earth blackened with aſhes, and the air tainted with peſtilence. It was computed that, within two months after the revolt firſt began, upwards of two thouſand white perſons, of all conditions and ages, had been maſſacred;—that one hundred and eighty ſugar plantations, and about nine hundred coffee, cotton, and indigo ſettlements had been deſtroyed (the buildings thereon being conſumed by fire), and one thouſand two hundred chriſtian families reduced from opulence, to ſuch a ſtate of miſery as to depend altogether for their clothing and ſuſtenance on publick and private charity. Of the inſurgents, it was reckoned that upwards of ten thouſand had periſhed by the ſword or by famine; and ſome hundreds by the hands of the executioner;—many of them, I grieve to ſay, under the torture of the wheel;—a ſyſtem of revenge and retaliation, which no enormities of ſavage life could juſtify or excuſe.' P. 77.

There is a note appended to this paragraph, which we tranſcribe, becauſe it correſponds with ſome anecdotes related by perſons who viſited France under the *ancien regime*. Such inhumanity on the part of the upper ranks, if it does not juſtify, at leaſt leſſens the ſurpriſe of a revolt and its cruelties on the part of thoſe who are enſlaved by them.

'Two of theſe unhappy men ſuffered in this manner under the window of the author's lodgings, and in his preſence, at Cape François, on Thurſday the 28th of September 1791. They were broken on two pieces of timber placed croſswiſe. One of them expired on receiving the third ſtroke on his ſtomach, each of his legs and arms having been firſt broken in two places; the firſt three blows he bore without a groan. The other had a harder fate. When the executioner, after breaking his legs and arms, lifted up the inſtrument to give the finiſhing ſtroke on the breaſt, and which (by putting the criminal out of his pain) is called *le coup de grace*, the mob, with the ferociouſneſs of cannibals, called out *arretez!* (ſtop) and compelled him to leave his work unfiniſhed. In that condition, the miſerable wretch, with his broken limbs doubled up, was put on a cart-wheel, which was placed horizontally, one end of the axle-tree being driven into the earth. He ſeemed perfectly

ſenſible, but uttered not a groan. At the end of forty minutes, ſome Engliſh ſeamen, who were ſpectators of the tragedy, ſtrangled him in mercy. As to all the French ſpectators (many of them perſons of faſhion, who beheld the ſcene from the windows of their upper apartments), it grieves me to ſay, that they looked on with the moſt perfect compoſure and *ſang froid*. Some of the ladies, as I was told, even ridiculed, with a great deal of unſeemly mirth, the ſympathy manifeſted by the Engliſh at the ſufferings of the wretched criminals.' P. 78.

In the ſeventh chapter, we meet with ſome very ſevere reflections on the Engliſh ſociety for the abolition of the ſlave-trade. Theſe we recommend to the attention of the members of that ſociety, as there are ſome aſſertions which they would do well to diſprove.

The next chapter continues the hiſtory of the civil war to the conflagration of the town of Cape François; and, in the ninth, we have (unaccountably, for it ought to have preceded the whole) a topographical and ſtatiſtical account of St. Domingo, which, until the ravages recorded in the former chapters, 'might juſtly be deemed the *paradiſe of the world*.' Of its importance to the mother country, we may judge from the following ſtatement.

'AVERAGE EXPORTS FROM THE FRENCH PART OF ST. DOMINGO, BEFORE THE REVOLUTION.

			Livres.
Clayed ſugar	lbs. 58,642,214	—	41,049,549
Muſcovado	lbs. 86,549,829	—	34,619,931
Coffee	lbs. 71,663,187	—	71,663,187
Cotton	lbs. 6,698,858	—	12,397,716
Indigo	Hhds. 951,607	—	8,564,463
Molaſſes	Hhds. 23,061	—	2,767,320
An inferior ſort of rum, called taffia	Hhds. 2,600	—	312,000
Raw hides	N° 6,500	—	52,000
Tanned ditto	N° 7,900	—	118,500
The total value at the ports of ſhipping, in livres of St. Domingo, was			171,544,666

being equal to 4,765,129l. ſterling money of Great Britain.

'If this ſtatement be compared by the rule of proportion with the exports from Jamaica, the reſult will be conſiderably in favour of St. Domingo, i. e. it will be found that the planters of Jamaica receive ſmaller returns from the labours of their negroes, in proportion to their numbers, than the planters of St. Domingo have received from theirs. For this difference various cauſes have been aſſigned, and advantages allowed, and qualities aſcribed to the

French planters, which I venture to pronounce, on full enquiry, had no exiſtence. The true cauſe aroſe, undoubtedly, from the ſuperior fertility of the ſoil; and, above all, from the prodigious benefit which reſulted to the French planters from the ſyſtem of watering their ſugar-lands in dry weather. This is an advantage which nature has denied to the lands in Jamaica, except in a very few places; but has freely beſtowed on many parts of St. Domingo; and the planters there availed themſelves of it with the happieſt ſucceſs.' P. 136.

The tenth and eleventh chapters contain an account of the proceedings of the Britiſh troops, to the capture of Port au Prince, and the melancholy reverſe of fortune which afterwards attended their arms. In theſe the reader will find many particulars not generally known, and many ſenſible remarks on the policy and conduct of the war in that quarter. Adverting to thoſe who died of fevers, Mr. Edwards exclaims,

'What numbers have periſhed—not in the field of honour—but on the bed of ſickneſs! not amidſt the ſhouts of victory—but the groans of deſpair! condemned to linger in the horrors of peſtilence: to fall without a conflict, and to die without renown!' P. 170.

To this burſt of proper feeling, he adds the following remarks:

'Theſe reflections, and the obſervations which I have made in the preceding pages, on the inſufficiency of the means to the objects in view, are not written in the ſpirit of accuſation againſt men in authority; nor (if I know myſelf) is there any bias of party zeal on my judgment. I am far from aſſerting, that the ſituation and reſources of Great Britain were ſuch as to afford a greater body of troops for ſervice in St. Domingo, at the proper moment, than the number that was actually ſent thither. I preſume not to intrude into the national councils, and am well apprized that exiſting alliances and pre-engagements of the ſtate, were objects of important conſideration to his majeſty's miniſters. Neither can I affirm, that the delays and obſtructions, which prevented the arrival at the ſcene of action of ſome of the detachments, until the return of the ſickly ſeaſon, were avoidable. A thouſand accidents and caſualties continually ſubvert and overthrow the beſt laid ſchemes of human contrivance. We have ſeen conſiderable fleets detained by adverſe winds, in the ports of Great Britain for many ſucceſſive months, and powerful armaments have been driven back by ſtorms and tempeſts, after many unavailing attempts to reach the place of their deſtination. Thus much I owe to candour; but, at the ſame time, I owe it alſo to truth to avow my opinion, that in caſe no greater force could have been ſpared for the enterprize againſt St. Domingo, the enterprize itſelf ought not to have been undertaken. The

object of the Britiſh miniſters was avowedly to obtain poſſeſſion of the whole of the French part of the country. That they placed great dependence on the co-operation of the French inhabitants, and were groſsly deceived by agents from thence, I believe and admit; but they ought ſurely to have foreſeen, that a very formidable oppoſition was to be expected from the partizans and troops of the republican government; and they ought alſo to have known, that no conſiderable body of the French planters could be expected to riſk their lives and fortunes in the common cauſe, but in full confidence of protection and ſupport. In my own judgment, all the force which Great Britain could have ſent thither, would not have been ſufficient for the complete ſubjugation of the colony. It is aſſerted by competent judges, that not leſs than ſix thouſand men were neceſſary for the ſecure maintenance of Port au Prince alone; yet I do not believe that the number of Britiſh, in all parts of St. Domingo, at any one period, previous to the month of April 1795, exceeded two thouſand two hundred, of whom, except at the capture of Port au Prince, not one half were fit for actual ſervice; and during the hot and ſickly months of Auguſt, September, and October, not one third.

'Perhaps the moſt fatal overſight in the conduct of the whole expedition, was the ſtrange and unaccountable neglect of not ſecuring the town and harbour of Aux Cayes, and the little port of Jacmel on the ſame part of the coaſt, previous to the attack of Port au Prince. With thoſe places, on the one ſide of the peninſula, and the poſt of Acul in our poſſeſſion on the other, all communication between the ſouthern and the two other provinces would have been cut off; the navigation from the Windward Iſlands to Jamaica would have been ſecure, while the poſſeſſion of the two capes which form the entrance into the Bight of Leogane (Cape Nicholas and Tiburon) would have protected the homeward trade in its courſe through the windward paſſage. All this might have been accompliſhed and ſecured; and I think it is all that, in ſound policy, ought to have been attempted. As to Port au Prince, it would have been fortunate if the works had been deſtroyed, and the town evacuated immediately after its ſurrender.

'The retention by the enemy of Aux Cayes and Jacmel, not only enabled them to procure reinforcements and ſupplies, but alſo moſt amply to revenge our attempts on their coaſts, by reprifals on our trade. It is known that upwards of thirty privateers, ſome of them of conſiderable force, have been fitted out from thoſe ports, whoſe rapacity and vigilance ſcarce a veſſel bound from the Windward Iſlands to Jamaica can eſcape. The prizes which they made, in a few ſhort months, abundantly compenſated for the loſs of their ſhips at Port au Prince.

'After all, though I have aſſerted nothing which I do not believe to be true, I will honeſtly admit, that many important facts and circumſtances, unknown to me, very probably exiſted, an ac-

quaintance with which is indiſpenſably neceſſary to enable any man to form a correct judgment on the meaſures which were purſued on this occaſion. To a writer, ſitting with compoſure in his cloſet, with a partial diſplay of facts before him, it is no difficult taſk to point out faults and miſtakes in the conduct of publick affairs; and even where miſtakes are diſcovered, the wiſdom of after-knowledge is very cheaply acquired. It is the lot of our nature, that the beſt concerted plans of human policy are ſubject to errors which the meaneſt obſerver will ſometimes detect. "The hand (ſays an eminent writer) that cannot build a hovel, may demoliſh a palace." P. 170.

The laſt chapter gives an account of the ſtate of the Spaniſh colony of St. Domingo, and concludes with ſome reflections, the importance of which will be a ſufficient apology for their length.

'If what I have thus —not haſtily, but—deliberately predicted concerning the fate of this unfortunate country, ſhall be verified by the event, all other reflections muſt yield to the preſſing conſideration how beſt to obviate and defeat the influence which ſo dreadful an example of ſucceſsful revolt and triumphant anarchy may have in our own iſlands. This is a ſubject which will ſoon force itſelf on the moſt ſerious attention of government; and I am of opinion, that nothing leſs than the co-operation of the Britiſh parliament with the colonial legiſlatures can meet its emergency. On the other hand, if it be admitted that the object is infinitely too important, and the means and reſources of France much too powerful and abundant, to ſuffer a doubt to remain concerning the ultimate accompliſhment of her views, in ſeizing on the whole of this extenſive country: if we can ſuppoſe that (convinced at length, by painful experience, of the monſtrous folly of ſuddenly emancipating barbarous men, and placing them at once in all the complicated relations of civil ſociety) ſhe will finally ſucceed in reducing the vaſt body of fugitive negroes to obedience; and in eſtabliſhing ſecurity, ſubordination, and order, under a conſtitution of government ſuited to the actual condition of the various claſſes of the inhabitants:—if ſuch ſhall be her good fortune, it will not require the endowment of prophecy to foretel the reſult. The middling, and who are commonly the moſt induſtrious, claſs of planters, throughout every iſland in the Weſt Indies, allured by the cheapneſs of the land and the ſuperior fertility of the ſoil, will aſſuredly ſeek out ſettlements in St. Domingo; and a Weſt Indian empire will fix itſelf in this noble iſland, to which, in a few ſhort years, all the tropical poſſeſſions of Europe will be found ſubordinate and tributary. Placed in the centre of Britiſh and Spaniſh America, and ſituated to windward of thoſe territories of either nation which are moſt valuable, while the commerce of both muſt exiſt only by its good pleaſure, all the riches of Mexico will be wholly at its diſpo-

ſal. Then will the humbled Spaniard lament, when it is too late, the thoughtleſs and improvident ſurrender he has made, and Great Britain find leiſure to reflect how deeply ſhe is herſelf concerned in the conſequences of it. The dilemma is awful, and the final iſſue known only to that omniſcient Power, in whoſe hand is the fate of empires! But whatever the iſſue may be,—in all the varieties of fortune,—in all events and circumſtances, whether proſperous or adverſe,—it infinitely concerns both the people of Great Britain, and the inhabitants of the Britiſh colonies,—I cannot repeat it too often,—to derive admonition from the ſtory before us. To Great Britain I would intimate, that if, diſregarding the preſent example, encouragement ſhall continue to be given to the peſtilent doctrines of thoſe hot-brained fanaticks, and deteſtable incendiaries, who, under the vile pretence of philanthropy and zeal for the intereſts of ſuffering humanity, preach up rebellion and murder to the contented and orderly negroes in our own territories, what elſe can be expected, but that the ſame dreadful ſcenes of carnage and deſolation, which we have contemplated in St. Domingo, will be renewed among our countrymen and relations in the Britiſh Weſt Indies? May God Almighty, of his infinite mercy, avert the evil! To the reſident planters I addreſs myſelf with ſtill greater ſolicitude; and, if it were in my power, would exhort them, "with more than mortal voice," to riſe above the foggy atmoſphere of local prejudices, and, by a generous ſurrender of temporary advantages, do that which the parliament of Great Britain, in the pride and plenitude of imperial dominion, cannot effect, and ought not to attempt. I call on them, with the ſincerity and the affection of a brother, of themſelves to reſtrain, limit, and finally aboliſh the further introduction of enſlaved men from Africa;—not indeed by meaſures of ſudden violence and injuſtice, diſregarding the many weighty and complicated intereſts which are involved in the iſſue; but by means which, though ſlow and gradual in their operation, will be ſure and certain in their effect. The colonial legiſlatures, by their ſituation and local knowledge, are alone competent to this great and glorious taſk: and this example of St. Domingo, and the dictates of ſelf-preſervation, like the hand-writing againſt the wall, warn them no longer to delay it! Towards the poor negroes over whom the ſtatutes of Great Britain, the accidents of fortune, and the laws of inheritance, have inveſted them with power, their general conduct for the laſt twenty years (notwithſtanding the foul calumnies with which they have been loaded) may court enquiry and bid defiance to cenſure. A perſeverance in the ſame benevolent ſyſtem, progreſſively leading the objects of it to civilization and mental improvement, preparatory to greater indulgence, is all that humanity can require; for it is all that prudence can dictate. Thus will the planters prepare a ſhield of defence againſt their enemies, and ſecure to themſelves that ſerenity and elevation of mind, which ariſe from an approving conſcience; producing aſſurance in hope, and conſolation in adverſity. Their perſecutors and ſlanderers in the

meantime will be disregarded or forgotten; for calumny, though a great, is a temporary evil, but truth and justice will prove triumphant and eternal.' P. 191.

The tables and illustrations which form the Appendix to this History, may be consulted with advantage. Upon the whole, the work will be found highly useful in unfolding scenes of the most distressing nature, whence lessons of great importance may be derived. Mr. Edwards, as we observed in reviewing his History of the West Indies *, is a moderate advocate for the slave-trade, because an advocate only upon policy. He has not been able to conceal from himself, or to hide from his readers, the original impolicy of that trade; and we observe, that, as events of a recent date more fully expose the dangers of a system of slavery, he seems more disposed to accede to the opinion of those who think it radically wrong. While, therefore, he supports the opinion that slavery ought to be gradually abolished, and the situation of the negroes rendered in the mean time more comfortable, we hope that he will indulge a charitable opinion of those who, conceiving, from the strange treatment of this question in parliament, that there is no serious intention to abolish it at all, may be led to speak of the horrors of slavery with greater acrimony than is perhaps consistent with facts.

A Defence of the French Emigrants. Addressed to the People of France. By Trophime Gerald de Lally-Tolendal. Translated from the French by John Gifford, Esq. 8vo. 7s. *Boards.* Longman. 1797.

IT was reasonable to expect, that the attacks which were made upon the French emigrants both by their countrymen and by the politicians of other nations, would excite the zeal of some individuals of their number to a defence of the whole body. Among these vindicators of an unpopular party, M. de Lally-Tolendal has highly distinguished himself; and his work has met with the general applause of the persons whose cause he has so eloquently pleaded. The translator pronounces the performance a *chef-d'œuvre*, considered as the speech of an advocate; and it undoubtedly is an able vindication; but, when he adds, that, in this view, the 'undeserved eulogies' occasionally distributed are not only 'justifiable but laudable,' he transgresses the limits of prudence and propriety. Unmerited praises are *excusable* in an advocate, as proceeding from an eagerness and warmth in the cause of his client; but such violations of truth are never *justifiable*; and still less are they *laudable*.

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* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. IX. p. 434; Vol. X. p. 260; and Vol. XI. p. 16.

In opening his addreſs, M. Lally makes a diſtinction between the devoted ſlaves of the ruling party, and the 'true people of France.' Having aſſigned his reaſons for declining a particular appeal to the tribunals, the two councils, or the executive directory, he ſays,

'*People of France!* I lay it' [*the cauſe*] 'before you; not before thoſe who have added to all their other uſurpations that of appropriating to themſelves excluſively your name; — to all their other acts of perfidy, that of calumniating it; to all their other crimes, that of diſgracing it; — but before the true people of France, who, far from having been the accomplices of our oppreſſors, have been aſſociates in our misfortunes, and were perſecuted and attacked at the ſame time with us; — but before all thoſe Frenchmen who, even amidſt the effervescence of paſſions, preſerved the purity of their hearts, or expiated noble errors by a more noble repentance; — but to the totality of good citizens in whatever claſs of ſociety they exiſt.' P. 13.

In this part of the addreſs, he takes occaſion to deliver his ſentiments upon the conſtitution of the year 1795; and, while he applauds ſome parts of it, he condemns others; particularly inveighing againſt the treatment to which the emigrants are ſubjected even by the beſt of the three conſtitutions.

Theſe unfortunate perſons being claſſed by their enemies under two heads, and conſidered either as *traitors* who left their country with a view of returning to attack it, or as *cowards* who abandoned it when they ought to have taken up arms in its defence, the author examines, at conſiderable length, the foundation of theſe charges. He firſt diſcuſſes the queſtion of puſillanimous abandonment. Men do not, he ſays, *voluntarily* forſake their family and their friends, to ſeek hoſpitality or protection in a foreign land, or exchange a pleaſing and peaceful deſtiny for the bitterneſs of exile: but, when a perſon ſees his neighbour's houſe burning, it cannot be expected that he ſhould patiently wait the extenſion of the flames to his own habitation, rather than eſcape deſtruction by a retreat from danger.

'Did not the flames of the incendiary extend from one extremity of France to the other? Were not whole provinces repeatedly covered with fire and ſmoke? Had not the man, whoſe houſe had been reduced to aſhes, a right to look for another, and was it not his duty to look for one in a country where his family would live in ſafety, and where incendiaries were not honoured? Had not the man, who ſaw the flames at his own door, who had been apprized, who believed, or who even ſuſpected, that his turn would ſoon come, a right to preſerve his life, when unable to defend his home? The mere puniſhment of being a witneſs to the crime, without being the object of it, would ſuffice to make a man

abandon the country in which it was committed with impunity; how then can any legiſlature pretend to forbid that man to emigrate who is threatened by crimes of every denomination, who is protected by no law, who is defended by no authority, and who has been deprived of the means of defending himſelf? A ſingle murder unpuniſhed, a ſingle aſſaſſin triumphant, ſuffices to alarm a whole city; what then muſt have been the ſenſation produced by heaps of murdered bodies lying unrevenged, and legions of murderers roaming unreſtrained?' P. 62.

The apologiſt adds, that

'It was a man's duty to fly when France was under the dominion of Robeſpierre; now the reign of his name was eſtabliſhed on the 2d of September 1792, but the reign of his crimes was much older. The day on which Mirabeau, when aſſaſſinations were denounced to the conſtituent aſſembly, called them trifling contrarieties unworthy the attention of the repreſentatives of France, and occaſioned a reſolution to be paſſed, declaring, that there was no ground for diſcuſſion; the day on which that aſſembly, thoſe legiſlators, thoſe repreſentatives of the country, thoſe omnipotent and ſole arbiters of our fate, inſpired by Robeſpierre, Mirabeau, Pethion, and Buzot, refuſed to the preſſing ſolicitations of their juſt and humane colleagues a decree for reſtoring vigour to the laws, and activity to the tribunals for the puniſhment of ſedition and rebellion, of murderers and incendiaries;—from that moment the ſocial compact was broken, the community was diſſolved, the country had diſappeared: all the ſentiments which its memory ſtill inſpired, all the ſacrifices ſtill made to its ſhade, were voluntary, were generous; the phantom which had been ſubſtituted in its place, had not a right to command any one of them.' P. 63.

There is ſome plauſibility in theſe remarks; but the ſpirit of true patriotiſm would have been more apparent, if the obnoxious royaliſts had remained in France, braving the ſtorm of commotion, or acquieſcing in the will of the majority of the nation.

The proceedings againſt the emigrants who did not bear arms againſt their countrymen, are regularly traced to the time of the promulgation of that infamous law which ordained the puniſhment of death againſt all who ſhould return into the territories of the new republic; and the ſupporter of their cauſe exclaims,

'For a long time the greateſt part of our oppreſſors only recollected that there were proſcribed perſons, without remembering all the characteriſtic marks of the proſcription; the victims themſelves felt their wounds bleed, without knowing what hand had inflicted them. Among the laſt, vague and enfeebled complaints indicated the exhauſtion of deſpair and almoſt a forgetfulneſs of their rights:

among the others, there was a regular form of outrage and calumny, which had eſtabliſhed a kind of poſſeſſion; and as it ſeldom happens, that ſounds which perpetually ſtrike the ear do not finiſh by inſtilling ſome prejudice into the mind; as impoſtors, by the habit of repeating their falſhoods, at laſt perſuade themſelves that they are true, ſo the cruel man, by conſtantly giving the name of juſtice to his cruelty, and the qualification of guilt to his victims, may ſometimes come to believe that he is nothing more than ſevere. But here the whole heap is collected together! Here all recollections are awakened, all conſciences warned, all rights revivified. Here the whole ſyſtem of that horrible proſcription, diſencumbered from all that obſcured it, is diſplayed in full light. All its parts are connected together. It is ſeen, it is followed, in its birth, in its means, in its execution, in its conſequences. Thoſe who, like you, worthy and wiſe republicans! feel the want of juſtice in their hearts, and feel it to be neceſſary for the ſafety of the republic, will rejoice to ſee themſelves relieved from the diſgrace of being concerned in a crime ſo manifeſt and ſo hideous. They will from this moment exclaim, let the law of Collot d'Herbois be anathematized! they will no longer invoke clemency, but juſtice, for every emigrant who is accuſed of nothing more than having merely abandoned France. As to the men, if men they can be called, to whom Collot d'Herbois and Robeſpierre have bequeathed their minds and their inclinations, they will at leaſt perceive that in ſpeaking of us in future, they muſt renounce all thoſe common-place inſults, of treaſon, of cowardice, of infamy; becauſe it has been clearly demonſtrated, that to them alone do thoſe appellations apply, while I, on the contrary, am pleading before you, people of France, for the martyrs of fidelity, for them who have carried the courage of virtue even to temerity, for beings, in ſhort, of both ſexes and of all ages, who, at the riſk of incurring greater calamities, reſolved to preſerve a pure heart, and pure hands. Yes, whoever ye be, who ſhall ſtill dare to ſupport the law of Collot d'Herbois, ye can no longer be either criminal or audacious by halves. Hypocriſy is no longer practicable; I have reduced you to the neceſſity of uſing one language; and that language is this: —

"The law of Collot d'Herbois was not more congenial to his mind than to our minds. Collot d'Herbois, Carrier, Le Bon, Barrere, Couthon, Saint-Juſt, and Robeſpierre were our colleagues, our friends, our aſſociates, until they endeavoured to become our rivals and our maſters. All thoſe whom they put to death previous to the 31ſt of May 1793, were put to death juſtly; becauſe at that time they executed their projects of deſtruction in concert with us. All who were put to death after the 31ſt of May would have been put to death with equal juſtice, if they had not wiſhed to put us to death alſo. It is our pleaſure to date the reign of terror, not from the day on which we extended it, in conjunc-

tion, over all France; but from the hour at which they extended it to ourſelves. Now that we have puniſhed their treachery to us, we will purſue the accompliſhment of their deſigns upon you. We will finiſh the career which we began with them, and which they would ſtill be purſuing with us, if they had been as faithful to their accomplices as they were pitileſs to their victims. The law of Collot d'Herbois ſhall be executed." P. 167.

In commencing the diſcuſſion of the concerns of the other claſs of emigrants, he makes the following appeal:

'If it were true, that, in the claſs of armed emigrants, there were different deſcriptions,—if it were true, that, among thoſe different deſcriptions, there were ſeveral in whom the act of taking up arms, was a right, a merit, a neceſſity, a duty, would it not be unjuſt to confound them with thoſe to whom ſuch act might be imputed as a crime?' P. 172.

He then endeavours to prove, that even the armed emigrants, with ſome exceptions, did not deſerve the rigours of proſcription, as they only exerciſed inalienable *rights*, or diſcharged the moſt ſacred of *duties*, or acquired the firſt of *merits*, or were led away by the moſt irreſiſtible of *neceſſities*.

In reply to the charge of their having produced the war by their complaints and expoſtulations, he affirms that the jacobins *alone* brought it on, and that they alone wiſh to continue it: but he is not altogether ſucceſsful in this part of his argument.

The imputations of criminality, thrown out againſt the emigrants, he repels upon their oppreſſors. 'Can juſtice (he aſks) conſider that man as a *criminal* who is ſtill armed againſt the inſatiate fury of his adverſaries?'

'Ah! theirs is the crime, who, having it in their power to reconcile all the French, perſiſt in the determination to arm them againſt each other, in order to render their diviſion the baſis of their own ſcandalous fortune and their own deteſtable domination. The crime is theirs who puniſh thouſands of unfortunate beings for the very neceſſity to which they themſelves have reduced them. The crime is theirs who declare war, and yet will not ſuffer themſelves to be oppoſed; who have recourſe to every means of attack, and yet will admit of no means of defence; who break capitulations, promiſe men their lives if they will lay down their arms, and then put them to death. The crime is theirs who calumniate the memory of the victims whoſe heads they have cut off; who ... but I will not proceed; for it is my wiſh to point out the innocent and not the criminal; ſuch is the fatality of my ſituation, to which I muſt and will ſubmit, that I muſt, at the ſame time, denounce aſſaſſination, and caſt a veil over the aſſaſſins.' P. 242.

He allows, however, that ſome of the party acted criminally, in 'favouring the crimes of their enemies in order to ruin them,' in oppoſing all accommodation, and in ſeveral other inſtances; but he ſubjoins, 'aſſuredly they are not criminal towards you, republicans; for it is probably to their ſyſtem that you are indebted for the eſtabliſhment of your republic.' This reaſoning is not logical, or concluſive; for, even if the *conduct* of the moſt active of the emigrants had proved ſo different from their views as to promote the intereſt of the oppoſite party, their *intentions* were ſtill equally criminal. He proceeds to ſtate the ſources of the decrees againſt them:

'They are not criminal with reſpect to your written laws; for againſt them, as againſt us, againſt all the emigrants of every deſcription, not a ſingle decree has been paſſed which did not emanate

'From accuſations without a crime;

'From condemnations without a trial;

'From retroactive puniſhments;

'From the infraction of exiſting and known laws;

'From uſurping villany, which polluted the firſt moments of the republic;

'From thoſe two monſtrous corporations, the jacobins and the commune of the 10th of Auguſt;

'From thoſe maſſacres of the 2d of September, which they conſpired together;

'From the empire of terror, of crime, and of death;

'From that throne the ſteps of which were compoſed of heaps of ruins and dead bodies;

'From the reign of Robeſpierre;

'From the legiſlation of Collot d'Herbois;

'In ſhort, from the crimes which have been gradually increaſing for ſix years. That is to ſay, that there is not one of thoſe decrees which juſtice does not reject; that there is not one of thoſe written laws which can be called law, which can ever be regarded as a law: *Neque in populo lex, etiam ſi populus acceperit.*' P. 248.

He ſtrongly maintains, that it is not only the part of juſtice and of duty to redreſs the grievances of the emigrants, and repeal all the laws enacted againſt them; but that policy, and the intereſt of the republic, concur to recommend ſuch conduct. He affirms, that, while the preſent ſyſtem is purſued, the 'four ends of every good political eſtabliſhment' cannot be obtained. Theſe ends are 'the liberty of the people, the juſtice of the laws, purity of manners, and ſtability of government.'

An addreſs to the deity, in which fervour is combined with ſimplicity, cloſes the volume. The author occaſionally diſ-

plays the brilliancy of eloquence; and, though ſometimes ſophiſtical, he is not infrequently cloſe and pointed in his arguments. Not having the original before us, we do not vouch for the ſtrict fidelity of the tranſlator: but his ſtyle is in general neat, though he has fallen into ſome errors of expreſſion which would diſgrace a mere tyro in literature *.

Minutes of the Society for Philoſophical Experiments and Converſations. 8*vo.* 8*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies.

THE deſign of a meeting for the regular diſcuſſion of chemical or philoſophical queſtions is at firſt plauſible, and, even on conſideration, ſeductive. But, if it be ever proſecuted with advantage, the ſociety ſhould not be numerous; and all the members ſhould have advanced ſome ſteps in the ſubjects of their inquiries, that they might be rather proficients than tyros. The perſon ſelected for the taſk of making experiments, if not a ſervile aſſiſtant, ſhould not be a dictator; the ſociety ſhouid not ſee only with his eyes, or merely adopt his concluſions. Some member ſhould indeed lead; yet the leader may be different on different ſubjects, as theſe may have been the more particular objects of his reſearch. Theſe obſervations may appear perſonal and invidious; but, though they were certainly in part ſuggeſted by the experience of this ſociety, we intend them as ſlight hints to thoſe who may wiſh to form a ſimilar one: the ſociety will not ſurely regret its own failure, if it can be rendered ſubſervient to future ſucceſs.

This volume has long remained unreviewed, as we hoped to receive a continuation; but ſuch an expectation is at an end: we ſhall therefore now enter upon our criticiſm.

The firſt propoſition relates to caloric, and its combination; but this meeting, in compliance with the wiſhes of the leſs informed members of the ſociety, was employed in explaining ſome fundamental points of chemiſtry, and ſhowing that caloric is really a body. At the next meeting, the ſubject was inveſtigated by experiments. In theſe, caloric, from a ſtate of free fire, was in various inſtances combined with bodies, and again ſeparated from them. Light is ſuppoſed to be fire in active motion; but we have lately learned to conſider it as a ſeparate body, capable of combination and ſeparation, like other chemical elements. Some diſpute aroſe, whether caloric, in gaſſes, was chemically combined, or abſorbed like wa-

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* For inſtance, he ſays, 'You devote to the ſame puniſhment the man, &c. and *he* who, &c. that is, 'you devote *he!*' He applies *banditti* to one perſon. He ſpeaks of *every pains*; and obſerves, 'You are their victims as much as, and ſtill more than, *us!*' Rev.

ter in a ſponge; but, on examination, it ſeemed moſt probable that a true chemical union took place. The experiments, for this purpoſe, are entertaining, and are applicable to other inquiries.

The ſubject of another meeting was to ſhow, that preſſure, combined with attraction, contributed to the extrication of caloric: this was chiefly proved by the evaporation of æther *in vacuo*, and the cold produced by it. With care, the experimentaliſt obſerved, that the thermometer may be ſunk 40°. Thus, if, at Bengal, the heat of ſprings be at 53°, and the apparatus, as well as the water, be cooled to this point, ice might be abundantly produced, as the heat would be brought to 13° of Fahrenheit; a ſtep far beyond Mr. Walker's boaſted diſcoveries. The effects of the preſſure of the atmoſphere, on many other bodies, were alſo ſhown for the ſame purpoſe. The experiments on the analyſis, &c. of air, offer nothing new or intereſting. In thoſe which relate to reſpiration, we find, that the effects of azote in air, when in a ſmall proportion, are merely negative. Carbonic acid air ſeems to act on the air-veſſels of the lungs, by producing ſtricture, ſince, when it was introduced by a canula, at an opening made *below*, it had the ſame effects as when it paſſed through the glottis.

The experiments on reſpiration, in men, are vague and trifling; and the obſervations on animal heat are trite, and of little value, though enunciated in a pompous didactic ſtyle.

Attempts were made, by the combination of hydrogen and oxygen, to form water, and extricate caloric. The method practiſed was more convenient than that of Lavoiſier, and the reſult was nearly the ſame.

A new inſtrument for reſpiration, and ſome unſucceſsful attempts to ſolve the problem, whether caloric gravitates, are afterwards deſcribed. The meeting, in which the phænomena of the oxydation of metals were examined, is intereſting; and many ingenious, as well as new, remarks occur. But we do not find any thing which we can ſelect with advantage: the deſultory ſtyle of colloquial communication ſeems to preclude abridgment.

Some experiments on the menſuration of caloric, and on frigorific mixtures, follow. The method of ſeparating phoſphorus, and its union with airs of different kinds, are noticed, as well as the proceſs of rectifying it, and applying hydrogen gas. We have alſo an account of the oxydation of various inflammable ſubſtances, but the experiments are not new.

As Dr. Higgins ſuppoſes light to be caloric thrown off with a projectile motion, it required ſome ingenuity to explain the exploſion of gaſſes by a ſpark only, which, as luminous, added

only caloric. His method of elucidating the effects of the ſpark is explained by a diagram; and its object is to ſhow, that, when the powers which contribute to the aggregation of oxygen and combuſtible matter, joined with caloric, are nearly *in æquilibrio* with the forces tending to their exploſion, a ſlight addition of heat may turn the ſcale, and produce the deflagration. We are inclined, however, to prefer the more recent doctrine of light being a diſtinct and an antagoniſing principle to heat. An account of different fulminating ſubſtances is ſubjoined, with a view of illuſtrating the opinion of Dr. Higgins.

The reſt of the volume is too miſcellaneous to allow us even to notice its contents. We ſhall ſelect only the following obſervations of Dr. Latham, which deſerve great attention, though we ſuſpect that his opinion is not ſupported by facts, particularly the appearance of electrical ſparks *in vacuo*.

'Whilſt the electrical ſparks were acting in the apparatus for the compoſition of water, and in the azotic and oxygenous gaſſes of the laſt mentioned experiment: "Dr. Latham informed the ſociety that he had made a diſcovery which might become important, with reſpect to the phenomenon which is generally called the electric ſpark. He obſerved that the appearance which is uſually denominated the electrical ſpark, is not electrical, but is actual fire produced from the decompoſition of any aëriform elaſtic fluid. That it is extricated and appears in the form of flame, in conſequence of an elective attraction taking place between the electric matter and the baſis of the elaſtic fluid, to the excluſion of the fire which was combined with it. He ſtated, in proof of his doctrine, that the ſpark is only ſeen in the line of direction as it paſſes from point to point through an elaſtic fluid; and that as the air is withdrawn, in the receiver of an air-pump, the ſpark appears leſs vivid, ſo that in a vacuum there is no evidence of fire at all; and yet that a veſſel may be charged with the electric fluid which ſo paſſes from point to point, although it does not manifeſt its paſſage by the common appearance of ſparks.

"He alſo ſtated that he was particularly induced to think upon the ſubject from obſerving the experiment for the formation of water repeated before this ſociety; where the hydrogenous gas takes fire upon the diſcharge of electric matter, when from many circumſtances he had previouſly convinced himſelf that electric matter had little or no analogy with it.

"He expreſſed himſelf ſanguine in the hope that many improvements in philoſophical purſuits might be derived from his diſcovery, and particularly inſtanced the theory of lightning and atmoſpheric meteors, of ſubterraneous fires and tepid ſprings and earthquakes; and mentioned ſome other important matters which might hereafter probably receive elucidation from a knowledge of the fact which he communicated.

"He alſo contended that if the ſpark really iſſued as he ſuppoſed from the decompoſed elaſtic fluid, that there might be poſſibly

found a method of tranſmitting the electric matter in ſuch a manner through ſimple gaſſes, as at laſt to exhibit oxygen, hydrogen, and azot in a ſolid form." P. 346.

Upon the whole, amidſt much parade, and many trifling obſervations, ingenious remarks may occaſionally be diſcovered in this work. Its chief value, however, conſiſts in the deſcription of ſeveral inſtruments for facilitating the preparations of different chemical ſubſtances, and in the ſuggeſtion of many uſeful precautions in various proceſſes and experiments, as well as conſiderable improvements in the proceſſes themſelves. The practical chemiſt may peruſe it with advantage; but it will add little to the progreſs of the ſcience.

The Life of Hubert: a Narrative, Deſcriptive, and Didactic Poem. (in Continuation.) The ſecond and third Books. By the late Rev. Thomas Cole, LL.B. &c. 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Law. 1797.

THE firſt book of Hubert having been already ſubjected to our criticiſm *, the ſecond and third books, which (we are informed by the editor) have been found among Mr. Cole's papers, are the objects of our preſent ſtrictures. Had the writer lived, he would probably have ſhown more of the *limæ labor*, than appears. Nevertheleſs, the ſubject, though ſimple, is intereſting, and the execution ingenious. The author reminds us of Mr. Cowper; but the poems of the latter, though, like this piece, they abound with feeble lines, poſſeſs more invention and imagery.

We ſhall now preſent our readers with ſome extracts from the work.

Hubert and his young companions having employed themſelves in the conſtruction of feats in a tree, the pleaſure which they derived from the completion of their work is thus mentioned.

'Our handy work, at leiſure, we ſurvey,
With much leſs pride, though not with leſs delight,
Than either Angelo, or Wren, could feel,
Had both ſurviv'd the toil of ling'ring years,
To ſee their rival domes auguſtly rear'd,
In honour of St. Peter, and St. Paul,
At Rome, and London; or that impious king,
Who boaſted of his mighty Babylon,
A city vaſt, with ſtrongeſt turret-walls
Well garriſon'd around, and palace grand,
Befring'd with verdant flow'ry plants, moſt rare,

* See Crit. Rev. New Art. Vol. XVI. p. 182.

Suſpended high above their native ſoil,
In beds of hanging gardens, at a coſt,
And labour, moſt immenſe; or he, of name
Unknown, who built, on Egypt's level ſands,
From ſpreading baſe, high tap'ring to a point,
That pierc'd the clouds, that regal pyramid,
Chief wonder of the world, and form'd to laſt
Till e'en the world itſelf ſhall be diſſolv'd.' P. 5.

A convivial meeting is not ill deſcribed in the following paſſage of the ſecond book.

'Our ſleek mild vicar, and more placid ſire,
Alike reluctant ever to reſign
Sedate poſſeſſion of an elbow-chair,
Were yet, for once induc'd, at much requeſt,
Their after-dinner doſe not half imbib'd,
In ſlow, reluctant progreſs, to adjourn
To our alcove; but not without due care
There to transfer, together with themſelves,
Good ſtore of aids convivial, to prevent
A joyleſs viſit. Soon as they could fix
On moſt commodious ſeats; and, to their taſte,
The table ſaw beſpread; with loud report,
From bottl'd beer, brew'd, two Octobers ſince,
With Dorſet's beſt pale malt, and Farnham hop,
The cork was drawn. The bowl of lip-wax'd pipe,
With cut tobacco of Virginian growth,
By ſkilful finger leiſurely compreſs'd,
Till quite replete, is kindl'd, bright by fits,
At each inhalant breath, from pureſt flame
Of waxen taper. Fragrant clouds of ſmoke,
In curling volumes, ſpread, at ev'ry puff;
And the deep glaſs with emblematic ears
Of bearded barley, round its brim feſtoon'd,
Is often fill'd: the active airy gas,
Sparkling awhile in all directions, fills
The liquid amber; then, upriſing quick,
In creamy mantlings on the ſurface ſmiles.
'Hubert's aſſociates ſoon deſert their gueſts;
But he, at once elate with pride, to find
His ſkill thus honour'd, and ſtill flatter'd more
With proſpect of deriving much delight,
And uſeful knowledge, from the blended proofs
Of practis'd wit and wiſdom; ſtood prepar'd
To catch, with greedy ear, whate'er they ſaid.
In ſmoke and muſing ſilence long inwrapt,
A ſtrong projected blaſt denotes at once
Matur'd conception; and from op'ning lips

The pipe is ſlow withdrawn, to give free vent
For moſt profound reſearch. With patriot zeal,
To ſave the ſinking ſtate, they ably plan
Meaſures, alas! to miniſtry unknown;
Or if before them laid, in council met,
Perhaps rejected with moſt fatal ſcorn.
In ſtrain oracular, they next deſcant,
With equal ſkill, at leaſt, on various modes
To manage arable and paſture lands:
On the beſt breeds, and moſt appropriate food,
Of horſes, bullocks, ſheep, of hogs, and dogs,
Deciſively pronounce. At length quite cheer'd
By heart-expanding draughts, the ſparkling eye,
And mouth criſp'd round with pregnant ſmiles beſpeak
More joyous thoughts. Of youthful college pranks
The vicar's tales, though ten times told before,
Are told again, with more than uſual glee.
With features quite compos'd, and in a ſtyle
Of humour dry, and manner all his own,
Would Hubert's father introduce a ſet
Of ſhort and pithy anecdotes, moſt ſure
To claim attention, and much mirth excite:
So ſingular, and matchleſs, in his way,
That ableſt mimics would attempt in vain
To ſpeak his parts, as well as he himſelf.
But ſome droll ſally, from another ſource,
Would oft provoke a laugh to ſhake his ſides,
By fits ſpaſmodic, till his breath would fail,
And make his painful mirth flow through his eyes.' P. 12.

The third book is written in the ſame ſpirit, and is equally amuſing: but we can only find room for one extract from it, which pourtrays the character of Hubert's mother.

'Handſome in youth, and when the matron ceas'd
To be the breeding mother, ſtill ſhe bloom'd,
In more mature, but undiminiſh'd charms.
Sprightly in converſe; certain to ſecure,
By courteous manners, and engaging ſmiles,
The hearts of all, whom chance or friendſhip made
Her cheer'd companions. Still alike polite
To gueſts of ev'ry claſs; but nicely ſkill'd
On each ſome mark'd attention to beſtow.
Moſt lib'ral in her treats, and proud to ſee
A ſpacious table, deck'd in taſte throughout
With varied plenty. Yet would ne'er diſdain,
By manual aid, and œconomic arts,
To ſhow herſelf, at times, as prompt to ſpare
All needleſs coſt, as generous to ſpend.

Quick in reſentment of an open ſlight,
From friends profeſs'd, becauſe ſhe felt herſelf
Sincerely faithful in her love to them.' P. 42.

Thus have we exhibited ſpecimens of a performance, which, though it does not poſſeſs much poetical animation, pleaſes by its ſimplicity. It reſembles the Dutch pictures, which contain a number of figures, much nature, with all the minuteneſs of detail, without elevation or grandeur.

Alumni Etonenſes; or, a Catalogue of the Provoſts and Fellows of Eton College and King's College, Cambridge, from the Foundation in 1443, *to the Year* 1797; *with an Account of their Lives and Preferments, collected from original MSS. and authentic Biographical Works. By Thomas Harwood.* 4*to.* 1*l.* 1*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1797.

THE ſeminary of Eton has produced many diſtinguiſhed characters, and ſome illuſtrious ornaments both of church and ſtate; and that academical foundation at Cambridge which is appropriated to the reception of Etonians, may claim its ſhare of this praiſe. Biographical ſketches of thoſe individuals may prove intereſting to readers in general, and to the members of thoſe eſtabliſhments in particular. The compiler of this work was himſelf educated at Eton; and he was at firſt induced by motives of perſonal amuſement to make thoſe collections which he afterwards thought proper to publiſh for the gratification of others.

For this catalogue, conſidered merely as a liſt of names, Mr. Harwood is chiefly indebted to Pote. The manuſcripts which enabled him, in ſome degree, to improve the ſkeleton into a body, were thoſe of Hatcher, a phyſician in the reign of queen Elizabeth, who was regarded as an able antiquary; of Hinde and Goad, two clergymen of later times; and other *elèves* of Eton. The publications of various biographers and collectors of anecdotes, from Fuller to Granger, were alſo uſeful to him in his compilation.

The provoſts of Eton college are firſt enumerated. The firſt perſon elevated to that dignity was Henry Sever, who appears to have been a rapacious pluraliſt. The moſt eminent of his ſucceſſors were, biſhop Waynflete, ſir Thomas Smith, ſir Henry Savile, and ſir Henry Wotton.

Of the provoſts of King's college, the firſt was Dr. Willington, who, having diſpleaſed Henry VI. by his partiality to the natives of Yorkſhire, was diſmiſſed from his ſtation. After a ſucceſſion of obſcure preſidents, Fox, biſhop of Hereford, who was an able negotiator as well as a learned divine, ob-

tained the provoſtſhip; and ſir John Cheke and Dr. Whichcot enjoyed it in the ſequel with high reputation.

Among the fellows of Eton, John Hales, ſtyled 'the ever memorable,' makes a conſpicuous figure; but the account here given of him is ill written. Many of the fellows of this ſociety were not educated at the ſchool, but were transferred from other ſeminaries.

The perſons elected to ſcholarſhips at Eton form a numerous liſt, including a period of 353 years. The names of moſt of theſe have long been forgotten by the world.

The following extract comprehends Mr. Harwood's account of a celebrated Etonian, who united a taſte for literature with the courage and ſkill of a warrior. Sir William Draper took both his degrees in arts at Cambridge; but, preferring a military ſituation to the exerciſe of a learned profeſſion, he

'obtained a commiſſion in the guards, and afterwards went to the Eaſt Indies, where, in 1760, he received the privilege of ranking as a colonel in the army, with Lawrence and Clive, and returned home that year. In 1761, he was promoted to the rank of brigadier in the expedition to Belleiſle. In 1763, with admiral Corniſh, he conducted the expedition againſt Manilla. They ſailed from Madras, Auguſt 1, and anchored September 27, in Manilla Bay, where the inhabitants had no expectation of the enemy. The fort ſurrendered October the 6th, and was preſerved from plunder by a ranſom of four millions of dollars, half to be paid immediately, and the other in an appointed time. The Spaniſh governour drew on his court for the firſt half, but payment was never made. Colonel Draper loſt his ſhare of the ranſom to a very large amount. In this expedition he was only nine months abſent from England. The colours taken at this conqueſt were preſented to King's College, and hung up in that beautiful chapel with proper ſolemnity, and the conqueror was rewarded with a red ribband. Upon the reduction of the 29th regiment, which had ſerved ſo honourably in the Eaſt Indies, his majeſty, unſolicited, gave him the 79th regiment of foot, as an equivalent. This he reſigned to colonel Giſborne, for his half pay, 1200l. Iriſh annuity. In 1769, ſir William Draper may be viewed in his literary character, drawing his pen againſt that of Junius, in defence of his friend the marquis of Granby, which was retorted on himſelf, and anſwered by him in a ſecond letter to Junius, on the refutations of the former charge againſt him. On a republication of Junius' firſt letter, ſir William renewed his vindication of himſelf, and was anſwered with great keenneſs by Junius. Here the controverſy dropped. He is ſuppoſed to have entered the liſts once more, under the name of Modeſtus, with this celebrated and ſtill concealed writer, in defence of a late general officer, who had been arreſted for debt, and who was ſaid to have been reſcued. In October, 1769, he retired to

South Carolina for the recovery of his health, and took the opportunity to make the tour of North America. That year he married miſs De Lancey, daughter of the chief juſtice of New York, who died in July, 1778, and by whom he had a daughter, who ſurvived him, with an ample fortune; ſhe afterwards married capt. Gore, and is now dead. May 29, 1779, ſir William being then in rank a lieutenant-general, was appointed lieutenant governour of Minorca, on the ſurrender of which iſland he exhibited twenty-nine charges againſt the late governour, Nov. 11, 1782. Of theſe twenty-ſeven were deemed frivolous and groundleſs; and for the other two the governour was reprimanded. Sir William was then ordered to make an apology to general Murray, for having inſtituted the trial againſt him, in which he acquieſced. From this time he lived in retirement at Bath, till his death, which happened on January 8, 1787.' P. 328.

We cannot ſpeak of the execution of this work in terms of high praiſe. It might, with little difficulty, have been rendered more pleaſing than it now is, and more generally acceptable.

The Anatomy of the Human Body. Containing the Anatomy of the Heart and Arteries. By John Bell, Surgeon. Vol. II. 12s. *Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1797.

THE ſame general character which we gave to the preceding volume of this work *, is applicable alſo to the preſent: we here obſerve a ſimilar accuracy and vividneſs of deſcription, accompanied with occaſional peculiarities of ſtyle and improprieties of expreſſion. The volume before us conſiſts of two parts; the anatomy and phyſiology of the heart, and the arrangement and deſcription of the arteries. The author has in the firſt part illuſtrated his ideas by explanatory ſchemes, and drawings from nature, which will be of great utility to ſtudents. The plates of the arteries are, we underſtand, to be publiſhed ſeparately.

We could have wiſhed that this work had been more ſtrictly anatomical, and that only ſuch phyſiological remarks had been introduced as might have enlivened the ſubject, or impreſſed on the mind of the reader the remembrance of the ſtructure and uſe of parts. The ſtudent, we fear, will loſe ſight of the facts of anatomy, when diſperſed amidſt ſuch a quantity of other matter; and neither the phyſiology nor the pathology of the heart are ſo complete as we are convinced the author could have rendered them. The obſervations on the compa-

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* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XII. p. 128.

rative reſpiration of animals are however entitled to much praiſe; and, on this ſubject, Mr. Bell ſeems to have laboured with equal diligence and ſucceſs.

We think it our duty to reprobate the perſonalities which occur in this work. It is unjuſt in Mr. Bell to aſſault thoſe who have given him no provocation; and if he thus acts from a conſciouſneſs of ſuperior talents, it is ungenerous in him to attack a weaker adverſary. We find it difficult to ſelect a part of this performance as a ſpecimen of it: the anatomical deſcriptions are unſuitable, and the phyſiological diſcuſſions are too long. We will, however, quote the remarks on the dilatation of the aorta. This diſeaſe moſt frequently happens in the decline of life.

'It is then a diſeaſe of weakneſs; it ariſes from a cauſe quite different from that which is commonly laid down. The celebrated Dr. Hunter believes that it ariſes from that prediſpoſition or weakneſs which naturally belongs to the form of this part, viz. a ſudden angle of the artery, expoſed in the moſt direct manner to the whole force of the heart. Dr. Hunter alſo believed, that no ſooner is nature ſenſible of this danger, than ſhe ſeeks to prop up the artery; and for this end thickens its walls till it oſſifies by ſlow degrees. Haller's theory is different from this, and comes nearer to the truth; for he makes theſe ſcales of oſſification not the conſequence, but the cauſe, of the diſeaſe. He ſays, the artery becoming ſcaly, and partly oſſified, no longer yields to the force of the heart; and the heart thus excited to a higher action is itſelf dilated, and at laſt forces alſo the aorta. In truth, neither of theſe is the true theory; but the aorta in aged perſons beginning to oſſify, has its middle or muſcular coat annihilated, and its outer and inner coats thickened, by the ſame proceſs. Its muſcular power is loſt; it is no longer capable of withſtanding, much leſs of ſeconding, the ſtroke of the heart by a ſecond ſtroke; it ceaſes to act, ſuffers itſelf to be dilated, and in a few years grows into a dreadful diſeaſe. I never ſaw an old aorta wanting ſome ſpecks of oſſification, or rather of calcareous concretion, nor an aorta ſo affected which was not dilated in proportion pretty nearly to the degree of this thickening and oſſification; at which we need not wonder, ſince we find not a bone (as it is uſually called oſſified aorta), but a vile calcareous concretion ſubſtituted to its muſcular coat. Nature is not at this time, as Hunter ſuppoſed, building up and ſtrengthening the walls of the aorta againſt this diſeaſe; but taking down ſlowly that fabric which has laſted its appointed time.

'However it is produced, it is an awful diſeaſe; for every organ, when once deranged, eſpecially if it be one as active as this is, never ſtops in its courſe; and this eſpecially ends early or late in ſome terrible kind of death. Sometimes, increaſing in ſize, it deſtroys all the ſurrounding parts and burſts within. Sometimes it burſts

into the cheſt, and then the patient drops ſuddenly down; ſometimes into the trachea, and then the cauſe of the ſudden death is known; for the patient, after violent coughings and ejections of blood by the mouth, expires.' P. 233.

Of a palpitation of the heart Mr. Bell thus ſpeaks:

'Palpitation is like that fluttering which fear brings on; the heart riſes in its action till it throbs, and beats againſt the ribs; it is ſtrongly felt, it is even audible to the by-ſtanders, and ſtill it is but a nervous diſeaſe. Its intermiſſions uſually diſtinguiſh it from any organic diſeaſe; its paroxyſms laſt for many days or weeks; and for weeks or months again it goes quite away. We ſee it relieved by a jaunt, by living from home and in company, by leaving all buſineſs and thoughts of buſineſs quite behind: we ſee the cauſes which bring it on as plainly as we know the cauſe of marſh fever, or the plague. The confinement even of a boil will cauſe it; the confinement of ſevere ſtudy is ſure to cauſe it; and ſevere ſtudy, with an anxious mind, in a young man unuſed to ſtudy; neglected where he is, and at a diſtance from all his friends, are ſure to produce this diſtreſs. "My ſon," ſays Wierius, "while at Bologna, purſuing his ſtudies, had this afflicting palpitation, accompanied with a capricious, frequent, and intermitting pulſe; but by bleeding (which the older phyſicians never neglected), and care, and relaxation from his ſtudies, he got quite well." This is the palpitation which the older authors diſtinguiſhed by the name of palpitatio cardiaca, marking it as proceeding from the ſtomach; equivalent, in the language of the preſent time, to the calling it a nervous diſeaſe.' P. 241.

The laſt account is inſerted near the concluſion of that chapter which treats of the diſeaſes of the heart; and which contains remarks on the enlargement of the heart, attended with a decline of ſtrength in that organ; on the ſtate of the heart when contracted and apparently increaſed in ſtrength; and on the aneuriſms of the aorta. There are other particulars in this chapter; but it is not ſo copious as to preclude the remark that the pathology and the phyſiology of the heart are incomplete. The deſcriptions of the arteries are given in a ſpirited and perſpicuous manner, and ought to be gratefully received by the Engliſh ſtudent, who has hitherto been obliged to read Winſlow's tedious and imperfect account of the blood-veſſels. A clear and correct ſyſtem of anatomy, in which the modern improvements of that ſcience ſhould be inſerted, was a work much wanted in this country. Such a ſyſtem was publiſhed in France by M. Sabatier, of whoſe work we have frequently wiſhed to ſee a tranſlation. We flatter ourſelves, however, that, when the preſent work ſhall be completed, it will be ſuperior to any other production of the kind: but

there yet remains much to be done; and we earneſtly adviſe the author to exert himſelf in the execution of his taſk, that, through his means, ſtudents may become better anatomiſts, and conſequently better practitioners of medicine.

Botanical Dialogues, between Hortenſia and her Four Children, Charles, Harriet, Juliette, and Henry. Deſigned for the Uſe of Schools. By a Lady. 8*vo*, 7*s*. 6*d*. *Boards.* Johnſon. 1797.

BOTANY is a ſcience ſo comprehenſive in its nature, and ſo pleaſing by its variety, that we might have expected it to have been more generally cultivated. The difficulty of its language, and the great expenſe of the works in which it has been uſually taught, have unqueſtionably retarded its progreſs. Theſe obſtacles, however, are in a great meaſure removed by the induſtry of the more modern botaniſts; and the preſent attempt will be uſeful in the ſame way. By the familiarity of the writer's manner, and the clearneſs of her deſcriptions, the labour of the ſtudent is conſiderably alleviated; and the ſcience aſſumes a more inviting aſpect.

The work conſiſts of two parts. The firſt diviſion explains the different parts of fructification; the various modes of inflorescence, and other elementary particulars. The ſecond part contains an explanation of the genera of plants, and of the proper mode of arranging them in the families to which they reſpectively belong.

Having thus mentioned the author's plan, we will introduce two extracts, in order to exhibit the eaſe and accuracy of the manner in which the work is written.

The following paſſage has ſome pertinent obſervations on the language of botany.

'*Hortenſia.* Having found the advantage and pleaſure, which may be derived from an induſtrious performance of your duties, I am perſuaded, that you will not again relapſe into thoſe indolent and deſultory manners, which have given me ſo much uneaſineſs. I am not ambitious of making you ſhining characters; but I am anxious to prevent your eſtabliſhing ſuch habits, as would render you trifling ones. There can be nothing learnt; there can be no ſtrength, no dignity of character attained, where the habits are idle. I apprize you that you will not find the firſt part of the ſtudy of botany particularly entertaining.

'*Harriet.* That we expect — I did not like learning my French grammar; but when I could read French, I was glad that I had learnt it.

'*Hortenſia.* So you will find it with every thing; if we do not

make a point of underſtanding well the rudiments, either of a language or a ſcience, we ſhall never make any great proficiency in it.—I have prepared this little room, which opens into my flower garden, for our ſtudy. Hither you may at any time come; and you will find books and glaſſes, and every thing that you may want. We will begin our lectures this morning. I have promiſed Henry and Juliette that they ſhall be of our parties; they are never idlers either at leſſons or play, and will, I dare ſay, find both amuſement and inſtruction from the ſtudy.

'*Henry.* We will be very attentive.

'*Juliette.* I long to know the names of all thoſe pretty things, that we find when we pull a flower in pieces.

'*Hortenſia.* I am a little afraid, leſt the hard names ſhould be too difficult for my younger pupils; however I will endeavour to make them eaſy.—Now for our firſt lecture.—Linneus, the great Swediſh naturaliſt, whom I have already taught you to reſpect, has divided the vegetable world into 24 claſſes; theſe claſſes into about 120 orders; theſe orders contain about 2000 families; and theſe families about 20,000 ſpecies, beſide the innumerable varieties, which the accidents of climate or cultivation have added to theſe ſpecies. The ſyſtem of Linneus is called the ſexual ſyſtem of botany, becauſe it is founded on obſervations, which ſeem to prove, that there are males and females in the vegetable world, as well as in the animal. The ſtamens are termed males, and the piſtils females: theſe moſt frequently exiſt in the ſame flower, but are ſometimes in different flowers, and ſometimes even on different plants; and from their number, ſituation, and other circumſtances belonging to them, he has formed his claſſes and orders; his families, or genera, are formed from all the parts of the bloſſom or fructification; his ſpecies, which are individuals of the families, from the leaves of the plant; the varieties, from any accidental circumſtance of colour, taſte, or odour: the ſeeds of theſe varieties do not always produce plants ſimilar to the parent, but frequently ſuch as reſemble that ſpecies, to which the parent belonged. Having given you a ſketch of the philoſophy of the ſyſtem, we will proceed to the examination of the different parts of a bloſſom, which now, if you pleaſe, we will accuſtom ourſelves to call the fructification; and pray obſerve, that I intend ſtrictly to require the uſe of the Linnean terms, as that will be a means of imprinting on your minds what you learn, and, as you grow older, will make you ready in the language of botany.

'*Harriet.* Laſt year, this would have been ſufficient to have frightened me from the ſtudy. Charles will have the advantage of us, as he underſtands Latin.

'*Hortenſia.* In ſome things he may; but the language of botany may be learnt without any ſuch aſſiſtance, and perhaps more readily by not being confuſed with a knowledge of the more common ſignification of thoſe words which Linneus has appropriated

to this ſcience: for inſtance, Charles will know that calyx means cup; but that will not aſſiſt him in the various ſpecies of calyxes, which he will have to retain in his memory; the common meaning of words is not ſufficiently preciſe for the purpoſe of ſcience, and cup and calyx require equal explanation, when appropriated to the particular part of a flower. The works of Linneus are now tranſlated; botany has a language peculiar to itſelf; that language is, I think, ſomewhat leſs difficult to learn than any other language, and, when learnt, introduces us to ſo delightful a ſtudy, that had I found ten-fold the difficulty that I did find in acquiring it, I ſhould think that I had ſpent my time well.' P. 2.

There are many parts of this uſeful publication that convey juſt obſervations on other points, beſides thoſe which are profeſſedly its objects. Our next quotation is of that kind.

'*Charles.* I am ſurprized to find ſuch a variety of ways in which flowers grow: I envy Linneus having made ſuch diſcoveries: how great muſt be his genius!

'*Hortenſia.* His genius was uncommonly great, but it is his induſtrious application of that genius, which I think moſt to be admired. He was indefatigable in reſearch; hence he diſcovered thoſe innumerable minute and wonderful varieties in every part of a plant, which has enabled him to give the world a ſyſtem, from which by attentive ſtudy we may arrange every plant, that grows, under its proper claſs, order, genus, and ſpecies. We can now converſe in one language with botaniſts in every part of the globe. The labours and knowledge of every individual are preſerved, and added to the general ſtock. All this we owe to Linneus; yet I adviſe you not to indulge yourſelf in envy of his great abilities, till you have been as uſeful to the world, as the abilities, which nature has given you, will allow of your being. I always ſet down for idlers thoſe perſons, whom I hear envying diſtinguiſhed characters; they are themſelves commonly weak and indolent.

'*Charles.* I will not deſerve that character, when I am a man.

'*Hortenſia.* I hope, and now believe you will not; but as you are born in that claſs of ſociety, which exempts you, as my eldeſt ſon, from the neceſſity of a profeſſion, it will require more exertion to avoid this character, than you may be aware of; on this account I wiſh particularly to cultivate your taſte for uſeful and elegant ſtudies. If you have philoſophical experiments, which intereſt you at home, you will give no more of your time, than is neceſſary for the civility of ſocial life, to idle and profitleſs company; you will be eager to return to your ſeeds and roots, or to your laboratory; finding yourſelf reſpected among men of ſcience, you will ſeek their company.

'*Charles.* I have already found the pleaſure and benefit of ſtudying chemiſtry: as ſoon as I became intereſted by it, I no longer

cared for thoſe companions, from whom, ma'am, you have warned me before in vain; and Mr. Wilſon ſaid I was quite changed.

'*Hortenſia.* You are now nearly what I wiſh you to be; a few years paſſed in a courſe of induſtrious habits will, I truſt, fix your character for life. My little Henry muſt exert his induſtry in a profeſſion; he may enter into that of medicine, in which caſe his preſent ſtudies may be of much uſe to him; in any ſituation the ſtudy of a ſcience teaches us to think, which is the foundation of all acquirements, and in my opinion of more value than all the train of accompliſhments commonly taught at ſchools.

'*Juliette.* Then, mamma, I am learning two things, botany and thinking.

'*Hortenſia.* One is the conſequence of the other; your works you learn by rote, like a parrot; the acquirement of them may be called the education of the fingers, that of ſcience, or language, of the mind: they are both becoming the female character; but if I was obliged to omit one in my education of you, which do you think I ſhould lay aſide?

'*Harriet.* I know that it would be ſcience and language; becauſe, ma'am, you have always told us, that the firſt point was to make ourſelves uſeful in the ſmall duties of life, which daily occur, and that we may have many opportunities of putting the acquirements of our fingers to uſe, both for ourſelves and others, before we can thoſe of ſcience and language. I ſhould however be very ſorry if I could only work.

'*Hortenſia.* There is no ſituation of life, where a knowledge of work is not requiſite; there are various ſtates, which will not allow of our time being ſpent in purſuits, that cannot be put into daily practice; your ſituation admits of both acquirements. I have however not allowed of your beginning the ſtudy of an amuſing ſcience, while you were idle at that moſt neceſſary one, arithmetic, and careleſs with your needle.

'*Juliette.* But, mamma, you have always taught us to think.

'*Hortenſia.* I have endeavoured to do ſo, and have found the advantage of it, in all other things I have had to inſtruct you in. Had you not been accuſtomed to compare one object with another, which is thinking, you would not have underſtood ſo readily, what I endeavoured to explain to you on the ſubject of botany: but we have wandered far from our ſtudy; which of you can tell me where we quitted it?' P. 52.

The young ſtudents, for whom theſe dialogues are intended, are certainly indebted to our female botaniſt for having leſſened the difficulty of approaching a ſcience which leads to ſo many intereſting diſcoveries: but thoſe who have made ſome proficiency in the ſtudy, will not be equally pleaſed with the work, as it is not (and indeed was not intended to be) profoundly ſcientific.

A Philoſophical and Practical Treatiſe on Horſes, and on the Moral Duties of Man towards the Brute Creation. By John Lawrence. Vol. I. 8*vo.* 7*s. Boards.* Longman.

THAT a judicious and well-written treatiſe on horſes, including a view of our duties to thoſe uſeful animals, would be an intereſting work, cannot be diſputed. This merit, however, will not be found to belong to the preſent performance. It is ſaid to be 'the offspring of a mind not the moſt brilliant by nature, which is enfeebled and rendered confuſed and irritable from chronic bodily weakneſs, and of a memory at intervals ſcarcely ſufficiently retentive for the ordinary purpoſes of life.'

Under theſe circumſtances, we ſhould have thought that Mr. Lawrence would better have omitted writing altogether. But, notwithſtanding his acknowledged incapacity, he reſolved to employ himſelf in compoſition.

Upon thoſe authors who have inveſtigated veterinary ſubjects, he has given a curious *critique*. He obſerves, that Gibſon has '*promulgated* a regular ſyſtem of veterinary practice, founded on the *permanent* baſis of *true medical principles*' (p. 25;) that Bracken 'lived at a period of time when the *true principles* of *phyſic* had already been diſcovered, and the *modus operande* [*operandi*] of medicines was well known (p. 30;) and, that, 'ſince that time, *no new diſcoveries* have been made in *fundamentals* at leaſt; unleſs we are to reckon as ſuch the chymical principles of M. Lavoiſier' (p. 30;) that the books of Bracken 'are generally, in all matters of importance, as applicable to the occaſions of the preſent time, as if written but yeſterday; and the errors in them ſo few and inſignificant, that they are unworthy the trouble of enumeration.' (p. 31.)

Taplin's Stable Directory is treated by our author with ſeverity. In 'ſkimming the cream' of that writer, Mr. Lawrence might, with great propriety, have made uſe of a little more of 'the milk of human kindneſs.'

The ſecond chapter of this extraordinary treatiſe commences with an elaborate diſcuſſion concerning the rationality of the horſe, in which it is affirmed, that he poſſeſſes the reaſoning faculty, in common with the human race, the difference conſiſting only in degree or *quantity*; that human pride, prejudice, and cruelty, alone have queſtioned this truth; and that the body of the horſe, like that of every living creature, is vivified and informed by a *ſoul*, or portion of intellectual element ſuperadded, which differs in degree in various animals. Clear and evident as this *reaſoning* may be thought by our learned diſſertator, we are obliged to confeſs that it is not

equally obvious to us. This may, however, ariſe from our want of experience in the modes and habits of reflection, which are ſuitable to the nature of ſuch animals. At any rate *we* are far better acquainted with the utility of a good horſe than with his powers of ratiocination, the explication of which we readily yield to the more penetrating talents of Mr. Lawrence.

On the topic of 'the rights of beaſts,' we meet with the application of our author's *luminous* doctrine. He informs us that

'it is but too eaſy to demonſtrate, by a ſeries of melancholy facts, that brute creatures are not yet in the contemplation of any people, reckoned within the ſcheme of general juſtice; that they reap only the benefit of a partial, and inefficacious kind of compaſſion. Yet it is eaſy to prove, by analogies drawn from our own, that they alſo have ſouls; and perfectly conſiſtent with reaſon, to infer a gradation of intellect, from the ſpark which animates the moſt minute mortal exiguity, up to the ſum of infinite intelligence, or the general ſoul of the univerſe. By a recurrence to principles, it will appear, that life, intelligence, and feeling, neceſſarily imply rights. Juſtice, in which are included mercy, or compaſſion, obviouſly refer to ſenſe and feeling. Now is the eſſence of juſtice diviſible? Can there be one kind of juſtice for men, and another for brutes? Or is feeling in them a different thing to what it is in ourſelves? Is not a beaſt produced by the ſame rule, and in the ſame order of generation with ourſelves? Is not his body nouriſhed by the ſame food, hurt by the ſame injuries; his mind actuated by the ſame paſſions and affections which animate the human breaſt; and does not he alſo, at laſt, mingle his duſt with ours, and in like manner ſurrender up the vital ſpark to the aggregate, or fountain of intelligence? Is this ſpark, or ſoul, to periſh becauſe it chanced to belong to a beaſt? Is it to become annihilate? Tell me, learned philoſophers, how that may poſſibly happen.' P. 119.

After ſtating what the rights of animals are, the author thus proceeds:

'The grand ſource of the unmerited and ſuperfluous miſery of beaſts, exiſts, in my opinion, in a defect in the conſtitution of all communities. No human government, I believe, has ever recognized the *jus animalium*, which ſurely ought to form a part of the juriſprudence of every ſyſtem, founded on the principles of juſtice and humanity. The ſimple right of theſe four-legged, and mute citizens, hath already been diſcuſſed. Experience plainly demonſtrates the inefficacy of mere morality to prevent aggreſſion, and the neceſſity of coercive laws for the ſecurity of rights. I therefore propoſe, that the rights of beaſts be formally acknowledged by the ſtate, and that a law be framed upon that principle, to guard

and protect them from acts of flagrant and wanton cruelty, whether committed by their owners or others. As the law ſtands at preſent, no man is puniſhable for an act of the moſt extreme cruelty to a brute animal, but upon the principle of an injury done to the property of another; of courſe the owner of a beaſt has the tacit allowance of the law to inflict upon it, if he ſhall ſo pleaſe, the moſt horrid barbarities. If ſuch enormities had never been, or were not now too frequently perpetrated, theſe ſpeculations had never ſeen the light.' P. 123.

By theſe means, the writer ſuppoſes, the rights of animals might be reſtored, and the cruelty of ſporting with them be prevented. On this head ſome of his regulations are not leſs judicious and humane, than the barbarities to which he alludes are horrid and diſguſting.

Having deſcribed different circumſtances in the nature and modes of treatment of the horſe with ſome degree of judgment and diſcrimination, Mr. Lawrence mounts his trotting *hobby*, and wanders into devious paths, through which, we believe, few would be inclined to follow him. But, on the uſe and management of draught cattle, and the art of ſhoeing horſes, ſome obſervations are introduced, which are deſerving of attention.

In ſhort, this *ne plus ultra* philoſopher, as he chooſes to term himſelf, has obtruded upon us much crude and viſionary ſpeculation, but has alſo preſented us with ſome uſeful hints for the management of horſes, conveyed, however, in language frequently exceptionable.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS.

The Caſe of the People of England, addreſſed to the "Lives and Fortune Men," both in and out of the Houſe of Commons; as a Ground for National Thankſgiving! By one of the 80,000 *incorrigible Jacobins.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Weſtley. 1798.

WE ſhould be ſorry if a writer of ſuch talents as are diſplayed in this production were an *incorrigible jacobin* *: we do not, indeed, affect to overlook the irony of the aſſumed appellation; but, as it may perhaps ſhock the feelings of many worthy read-

* In the ſecond edition of the pamphlet, this exceptionable appellation has been omitted.

ers, we wiſh that the author had not (we believe unintentionally) thus laid a ſort of trap for literary curioſity, — the merit of his compoſition rendering any ſuch manœuvre unneceſſary.

Among the various claſſes of modern Britiſh parties, the 'lives and fortune men' have been conſpicuous for their pompous *profeſſions* of attachment to our conſtitution. Of thoſe declarations they are reminded by the preſent author, who, in a ſtrain of pointed animadverſion, expoſes the calamitous effects of the war with France. He controverts the aſſertion of the original neceſſity of this war, with arguments which, if ſometimes urged with too much warmth, will not be found deficient in cogency. The conduct of it is alſo the ſubject of his ſtrictures; and here the miniſter is not ſpared; his political character is examined and appreciated in a manner which will not pleaſe his partial advocates.

After a recapitulation of the ſtriking inſtances in which the ſchemes of the Britiſh cabinet have proved abortive, the writer, alluding to the *premier*, exclaims,

'Yet this is the man who calls as loudly and arrogantly for confidence, who challenges enquiry as boldly into his conduct, and appeals to events, now that they have proved one tiſſue of diſaſters and diſgraces, with as much unbluſhing impudence, as he did, when he ſwayed the deſtinies of Europe, and made the French republic tremble for her exiſtence. There is not one object of the war gained by him; yet there never was ſuch a power of inſtrument and means committed to the hands of a European governor! — There is no inſtance of failure both in deſign, and in execution, of which he has not been convicted; there is no calamity which he has not inflicted on his country; and yet he obſtinately holds the reins of office, with the ſame lofty tone of preſumption, and the ſame hardihood of reſolve, as ever; and ſtill at the annual opening of his Pandora's box, entertains the repreſentatives of the people with a long and eloquent romance on the proſperous ſtate of the country.' P. 51.

We obſerve with pleaſure, that the principles and form of the conſtitution are treated with due reſpect by our author. We are ſorry, however, that he has reaſon to complain of the unprincipled or prejudiced contempt, with which, among a great portion of Britiſh ſociety, it is at preſent the faſhion to treat every ſentiment favourable to freedom.

'It ſeems in this country, that to expreſs a virtuous regard for the public weal, a love of liberty, and a ſincere conviction that public and private duties can form but one code of morals, is a romantic and puerile enthuſiaſm. It is ſuited indeed to the imagination of a ſchool boy, warm from the peruſal of antient ſtory, filled with examples of antient patriotiſm, and with maxims and images of antient freedom: but it argues a want of knowledge of the world, of men and manners, of obſervation and experience, to indulge in theſe ſcholaſtic reveries, to carry them forward with you into real life, or to dream that their lofty illuſions are con-

ſiſtent with the capacities and condition of man. If it is ſo, I muſt be content to abide the cenſure of the world. For never can I ſo far forget thoſe ſacred leſſons of virtue which my early youth imbibed from the oracles of the antient world, thoſe recitals of great exploit and heroic ſuffering, in defence of freedom; and the whole ſyſtem of thought and action, which was founded on the principle of a delightful and expanded benevolence, as to deride and deny their value. To thoſe ſtores of memory I turn my mind, when it is ſick with the contemplation of human miſery and crime: not that it may forget itſelf or human nature; but that it may be ſtimulated to virtuous exertion, and be conſoled for the degradation of man, as he is, by contemplating the picture of what he has been, and the hope of what he may be.' P. 64.

The preſſure of taxation on the middling claſſes of the public is properly deprecated by this politician; and his reaſoning on ſome of the natural effects of that injudicious ſyſtem would be thought worthy of attention by any financier who had not forgotten the fable of the gooſe with the golden eggs.

'By impoſing ſuch burthens on the people, you take from them the power of maintaining their former connexion and intercourſe with the higher orders. You take away that ſyſtem of habits that has been the nurſe of reciprocal attachment and ſympathy. And man is the creature of habits. Other modes of life will induce other opinions. When once a man is reduced to plebeian circumſtance, he imbibes plebeian malignity; when he is no longer able to contemplate his ſuperior in the amiable light of a private friend and a kind neighbour; when he no longer meets him in the midſt of domeſtic endearments, and ſocial charities, exerciſing the duties of a father, a huſband, the maſter of a family, or an indulgent landlord; he no longer remembers any thing but his invidious ſuperiority, he thinks only of him as a being cloathed with power and ſplendour, inveſted with the authorities of the ſtate, and bleſſed with enjoyments, of which he is, as he conceives, unjuſtly deprived. Dreadful therefore is the influence of ſevere taxation on a free people, becauſe it undermines thoſe ſecurities on which the energy of that freedom muſt of neceſſity depend: for what will it avail us, that Weſtminſter Hall ſtands where it did, that the letter of the conſtitution, and the ſtatute book remain as they have been in ages paſt, if thoſe manners, that ſpirit, and that national character are no more, which were the parents, and which muſt be the ſupports of their exiſtence. Laws and inſtitutions are only inſtrumental: it is the wiſdom, the reaſon, and the will of the nation from whence they ſprung, that are the firſt cauſes and the active principles of their utility.

Quid valeant leges ſine moribus

is as true in Great Britain as it was at Rome.' P. 74.

This pamphlet, upon the whole, diſcovers ſome marks of genius and of virtuous principle; but we do not expect that it

will have any influence in curing the obſtinate infatuation of the times.

An Examination of the Cauſes and Conduct of the preſent War with France; and of the moſt effectual Means of obtaining a ſpeedy, a ſecure, and an honourable Peace: together with ſome Obſervations on the late Negotiation at Liſle. 8vo. 2s. Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

This pamphlet contains an artful and plauſible rather than ſatisfactory defence of miniſterial meaſures. The writer affects to be impartial; but the zeal of a partiſan is more diſcernible in his production than the temper of a liberal inveſtigator.

He begins with a condemnation of the inconſiſtency of many perſons who once 'ſtrongly reprobated the French ſyſtem,' but who now 'view in the mildeſt light what formerly excited their ſtrongeſt averſion.' He adds, that

'many, who conſidered the war as juſt, by reaſon of the aggreſſion on the part of the enemy, and neceſſary for our own preſervation, began to ſuppoſe that we had been dragged into it by his majeſty's miniſters, without neceſſity, and with the moſt flagrant injuſtice.' P. 4.

But there are *very few*, we believe, who have thus abandoned their original ſentiments. Thoſe who were at firſt ſo weak as to deem the war *juſt* and *neceſſary*, obſtinately perſiſt in the ſame opinion, even while they feel the miſchiefs which have reſulted from it; and thoſe who diſapproved the war at its commencement, continue to entertain a juſt deteſtation of it.

He proceeds to obſerve, that

'all the calamities and all the guilt of war are chargeable, not on that ſtate which defends, but on that which invades, right; eſpecially if every thing has been done to obtain, by equitable diſcuſſion, that which is ultimately maintained by force.' P. 8.

But it does not appear that the French *actually* invaded the *rights* of Great-Britain, whatever inſinuations or menaces they might throw out in the ardour of republican zeal; and ſtill leſs can it be maintained, that due recourſe was had, on our part, to the modes of equitable diſcuſſion.

He admits, indeed, that the war might have been avoided; but affirms that our forbearance would have expoſed us to great danger, by depriving us 'of all power of exertion, whenever it might be demanded for our own immediate preſervation.' On the contrary, our powers of exertion would have been freſh and vigorous, inſtead of being enfeebled by an unfortunate conteſt.

Britiſh neutrality, he thinks, would have given to the French ſuch opportunities of exciting diſcontent in this kingdom, that a revolution, in all its horrors, would probably have occurred.

'Was this dreadful probability to be committed to the deciſion of unforeſeen events, and were no meaſures to be adopted which

might effectually preclude it? It has hitherto been precluded by the war, which has prevented French emiſſaries from communicating, ſo extenſively, their ſecret deadly poiſon, and has armed us at all points to withſtand and repel every open attack.' P. 12.

A continuance of peace, however, would have been conſidered by a judicious miniſter as more effectually preclufive of the ſucceſs of revolutionary attempts.

He afterwards endeavours to prove, that 'the cauſe of the actual commencement, or rather of the repulſion of hoſtilities, on the part of this country, was ſuch as it was abſolutely *impoſſible* to avoid.' In this reſpect we differ from him completely; but our limits will not permit us to follow him in his courſe of prejudice and ſophiſtry.

In ſpeaking of the general ſucceſs of the war, he allows that ſome faults have been committed by the court in the management of it; but he thinks it very doubtful whether the opponents of the miniſtry would have conducted it 'with equal ability and ſucceſs.' With regard to the proſpect of obtaining an honourable and beneficial peace, he is of opinion, that we are more likely to procure it under the auſpices of Mr. Pitt, than of any of his political adverſaries; and he pours out his venom againſt the latter in the following malignant ſtrain:

'When it is conſidered with what indefatigable induſtry and perſeverance a certain ſet of men have defended the enemy's cauſe, with what marked partiality they have reprobated every meaſure employed againſt him, with what hyperbolical amplification they have commemorated all his triumphs, with what faint and forced praiſe they have mentioned the moſt ſplendid exploits of the defenders of their country, with what exultation they contemplate every diſaſter, whether foreign or domeſtic, that befals us, with what callous indifference they look forward to the dreadful national calamities which their conduct is calculated to produce; it is neither an unjuſt nor an irrational concluſion to ſuppoſe, that, for the attainment of the mean and contemptible objects of party, they would hardly ſcruple to ſacrifice the preſent and future welfare of their country.' P. 89.

We ſhall make no other obſervation on this paſſage, than that the concluſion is weak and untenable, being founded on falſe premiſſes.

An Appeal to the Head and Heart of every Man and Woman in Great Britain, reſpecting the threatened French Invaſion, and the Importance of immediately coming forward with Voluntary Contributions. 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1798.

The earneſt ſolicitations of the friends of the government have had ſome effect. Nearly a million ſterling has been raiſed in the form of voluntary contributions; but we cannot affirm that this ſum is adequate to the expectations of thoſe who propoſed the ſcheme. The preſent pamphlet may, without doubt, have operated as a ſtimulant. It ſpeaks to the paſſions and to the preju-

dices; a mode of addreſs which may be deemed very fair on ſuch an occaſion. That it does not ſpeak the language of common ſenſe in all inſtances, may be proved from the following paſſage. The author, having expreſſed his hope that the proceſſion on the thankſgiving day was approved by the deity, adds, 'After a long and almoſt uninterrupted ſeries of bad weather, the day ſet apart on this occaſion was *diſtinguiſhed* as one of the moſt beautiful that was ever known in this country at that ſeaſon of the year.—And no ſooner was it over than the unfavourable weather returned. Nor is it *undeſerving of notice*, that while the metropolis, the ſcene of this pious ſolemnity, enjoyed the benign and auſpicious rays of the ſun, different parts of the country continued to experience an uninterrupted inclemency of ſeaſon—and a traveller in Wiltſhire has declared, that the day was there ſo ſtormy that he thought the proceſſion could not take place.' We have ſaid that this is not the language of common ſenſe; but we will go farther, and aſk any of the divines of the church of England, or any diſſenting miniſter, whether they ever heard of a more bold attempt to turn into ridicule the doctrine of a ſuperintending providence; and we put the ſame queſtion to the '*head and heart of every man and woman in Great Britain!*'

Pacification; or, the Safety and Practicability of a Peace with France demonſtrated; with Remarks upon the Advantages of a Change of Miniſtry, and the Dangers which threaten both Nations by an obſtinate Perſeverance in the War. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1798.

Being convinced that a ſpeedy peace cannot be expected while Mr. Pitt continues at the helm, this writer repreſents 'the *probable* advantages of a change of miniſtry, as being ſo *plain* and *forcible*, that, like a *ſelf-evident propoſition*, no language can make them plainer. To undertake to prove them logically, would be like a man in the midſt of the ocean going about to prove, by mood and figure, the exiſtence of water.' The ſubſtance of this obſervation we are not diſpoſed to controvert. We are of opinion, as firmly as the author is, that there is a perſonal jealouſy between the rulers of the two nations, which will ever be an obſtruction to the concluſion of a peace upon grounds of mutual advantage. But has not his zeal diſturbed his logical talents, when he ſtates that what is *probable* only, is plain and forcible, and *like* a ſelf-evident propoſition?—As to the 'conſequent practicability of a peace,' he inſiſts upon the conſideration that peace is *neceſſary* to France.

Treating of the cauſes of the French revolution, he makes the following juſt remarks. 'Some may think, perhaps, with archbiſhop Laud, that there is no end of conceſſion—and ſo we think; and ſo we are well perſuaded, when conceſſion ariſes from neceſſity, rather than choice. The common progreſs of mankind, in all ages and countries, ſeems to be this. They begin with reaſonable demands, and proceed to unreaſonable: it is the buſineſs of authority to draw the line. Authority can loſe nothing by judicious conceſſion.'

Upon the whole, though we do not conſider this pamphlet as

the beſt attack ever made upon the conduct of adminiſtration, it contains perhaps as much truth, and as little violence, as any.

Thoughts on a French Invaſion, with Reference to the Probability of its Succeſs, and the proper Means of reſiſting it. By Havilland Le Meſurier, Eſq. Commiſſary General for the Southern Diſtrict of England. 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1798.

Whatever difference of opinion may prevail with regard to the conduct of miniſtry, and however difficult it may be to procure unanimity on the diſputed points which have ariſen in the courſe of the war, the duty of repelling invaſion muſt ſtrike every man who values the independence of his country. The proper means, we truſt, have not been neglected: yet the opinions of men of knowledge and experience are always deſerving of attention. The advice of Mr. Le-Meſurier is principally directed to the means of preventing our enemies, if they ſhould land, from procuring ſubſiſtence; and the mode which he ſuggeſts appears to be proper. He addreſſes the people in forcible language; and his pamphlet would receive our unqualified approbation, if he had not ſhown a diſpoſition to claſs the political opponents of the miniſtry with the traitors to their country. We know that this is now a frequent practice; but every man of a liberal mind, and who wiſhes to conciliate, muſt allow that ſuch a cuſtom is 'more honoured in the breach, than the obſervance.'

Thoughts on the Conduct both of Miniſters and Oppoſition, ſubmitted by a true born Engliſhman, to the Serious Conſideration of his Countrymen. 8vo. 3d. Longman. 1797.

Theſe thoughts are extracted from the political Philippics of Mr. Bowles. To what diſtreſs are our compilers driven for materials!

Thoughts on the Defence of Property. Addreſſed to the County of Hereford. By Uvedale Price, Eſq. 12mo. 1s. Debrett. 1797.

In this ſhort, but ſenſible addreſs, Mr. Price co-incides with Mr. Young, and others who have recommended an armed union among perſons of property for the defence of the country. We truſt that a ſcheme which alone can enſure the peace of the kingdom, either in the event of an actual invaſion, or of a partial attempt ſpreading terror and diſmay, will not meet with the leaſt repugnance or oppoſition.

Trois Mémoires ſur les Affaires de France; écrits dans les Années 1791, 1792, et 1793. Traduits de l'Anglois du Très-Honorable Edmund Burke.

Mr. Burke's Three Memorials concerning the Affairs of France; tranſlated into French. 8vo. 3s. Dulau. 1797.

As this is merely a re-publication, in a new dreſs, of a pamphlet which we reviewed ſoon after its appearance *, without

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXI. p. 184.

the ſmalleſt addition from the pen of the tranſlator, it claims only a ſlight notice. Of the general execution of it, in point of ſmoothneſs, eaſe, and elegance, we cannot ſpeak in terms of high praiſe; for, though many paſſages are well tranſlated, we very frequently meet with aukward phraſes, and expreſſions not ſtrictly idiomatic. The ſenſe, however, is faithfully preſerved, wherever we have compared it with the original.

LAW.

A Treatiſe on Copyholds. By Charles Watkins, Eſq. of the Middle Temple. 8vo. 9s. 6d. *Boards.* Pheney. 1797.

The hiſtory of copyhold eſtates includes an elucidation of many important principles of our ancient feudal tenures. The competency of Mr. Watkins for the undertaking will, we doubt not, be ſpeedily recogniſed by the profeſſional reader, to whoſe notice the preſent publication is thus introduced:—

'If what is perfect cannot be attained, it can be no reaſon why that which is uſeful ſhould not be attempted. The author has taken ſome pains to make the following treatiſe uſeful; but it muſt not be expected that he has made it perfect. If his labours have not produced what has been wiſhed, they may, at leaſt, ſhorten, in ſome meaſure, the labours of others, and aſſiſt ſome one, bleſſed with better powers than himſelf, and with circumſtances more propitious, to give to the profeſſion a treatiſe more complete.' P. v.

We have, on ſeveral occaſions, given due encomium to the reſearches and obſervations of Mr. Watkins, on the ſubject of the laws and conſtitution of this country; but we have alſo thought it our duty to remark that his productions had the fault of a ſeemingly oſtentatious accumulation of references; and we wiſh that our hint had been ſufficiently obſerved in the treatiſe now under inſpection, which, nevertheleſs, is entitled to the praiſe of labour, accuracy, and utility.

A Treatiſe on Exciſe and "Qui Tam" Informations, as they relate to Summary Proceedings before Juſtices of the Peace. The Mode of proſecuting and defending ſuch Informations, and the Law, Evidence, and modern Determinations thereon. Together with ſome approved and uſeful Precedents of Summonſes, Informations, Convictions, Warrants, and Notices; and alſo an Index to all the Exciſe Acts of Parliament. By Robert Kyrle Hutcheſon, Eſq. Barriſter, Briſtol. 8vo. 4s. *Sewed.* Butterworth. 1797.

We have found, on the peruſal of this treatiſe, that its utility has not been over-rated in the title-page. The ramifications of the exciſe laws are very numerous; and the importance of that branch of the revenue renders every department of juriſdiction connected with it almoſt in itſelf a ſyſtem. Mr. Hutcheſon has faithfully delineated and judiciouſly arranged the duties of juſtices of the peace, in ſummary proceedings relative to the exciſe; and the ſecond chapter of the treatiſe contains ſome remarks highly

worthy of the attention of thoſe gentlemen in the commiſſion, who may occaſionally have forgotten the dignity and impartiality which ſhould accompany the truſt repoſed in them.—The 'index to all the exciſe acts of parliament,' is correctly and ably executed.

A complete Collection of Abſtracts of Acts of Parliament, and Caſes with Opinions of the Judges upon the following Taxes: viz. upon Houſes, Windows, Servants, Horſes, Carriages, and Dogs; the Duties upon Hair-powder Certificates; and alſo the Twenty per Cent. upon Aſſeſſed Taxes; together with the ſeveral Determinations upon the Poſt-Horſe Act. By John Smee, of the Exchequer, Weſtminſter, Gent. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. 6d. *Boards.* Butterworth. 1797.

Mr. Smee juſtly obſerves in his Preface, that —

'the variety and complexity of the duties and taxes, which the exigencies of the ſtate from time to time have rendered neceſſary to be impoſed upon the nation, are ſuch as deeply to intereſt all ranks and claſſes of ſociety more or leſs, not merely in the payment, but in the manner of collecting them. There is no queſtion, but that in the ſyſtem of finance, a principal object in making new levies, is the eaſe, ſimplicity, and certainty of the collection. More diſcontent will often ariſe out of a doubt, difficulty, or hardſhip attending the payment, than from the amount of the ſum paid.' Vol. i. p. vii.

To obviate this inconvenience, the preſſure of which many of our readers have doubtleſs felt, is the object of this publication, which, the compiler hopes, will ſuperſede the neceſſity of referring to the reſpective acts of parliament. Accuracy, therefore, and judgment, in the extracts which have been made, are of the utmoſt importance. We have not found Mr. Smee deficient in either, and we think that his collection of caſes and determinations on the various ſtatutes by which taxes are impoſed, will prove particularly uſeful, both to the profeſſion and the public.

A New Law Dictionary; comprehending a general Abridgment of the Law, on a more extenſive Plan than has hitherto been attempted: containing not only the Explanation of the Terms, but alſo the Law itſelf, both with regard to Theory and Practice. By William Marriot, Eſq. Vol. I. 8vo. 9s. 6d. *Boards.* Stratford. 1797.

That the plan of this publication is more *extenſive* than that of *all* former works of the kind, we are not diſpoſed to admit, however ſtrongly the aſſertion is expreſſed in the title-page. But we are ready to allow, that the plan of this dictionary is very comprehenſive, and that the compiler has diligently exerted himſelf to render his work acceptable to the public. He has regularly introduced the ſubſtance of the moſt important ſtatutes, and the moſt remarkable adjudications and deciſions, including even the moſt recent; and the work may be advantageouſly conſulted, not only by the profeſſors and ſtudents of the law, but alſo by magiſtrates, parochial officers, and perſons of other denominations.

MEDICINE, &c.

Practical Obſervations on the Diſeaſe of the Joints, commonly called White-Swelling; with ſome Remarks on Scrofulous Abſceſſes. By Bryan Crowther, Surgeon to Bridewell and Bethlem Hoſpital. 8vo. 3s. Robinſons. 1797.

In the treatment of the diſeaſes of the joints, improvements have been gradually made. As ſurgeons became more ſcientific, they perceived the inefficacy of a poultice, or ſome ſimilar remedy, applied to the ſkin, where the diſeaſe was ſituated far from the ſurface, within the capſular ligaments of the joint, or the interior parts of thoſe bones which compoſe the articulation. Local phlebotomy, perfect quietude of the diſeaſed parts, and counter-irritation by bliſters and iſſues, are the chief remedies that have been of late warmly recommended; but ſurgeons do not agree in their opinions with regard to the degree of merit of each of theſe means of cure. Mr. Crowther, in the review which he has taken of this ſubject, ſays, that local bleeding is of little benefit, except in relieving pain; that quietude is neceſſary; but that he principally relies on a conſiderable diſcharge of pus from the ſkin covering the diſeaſed part. He was incited to perſevere in this plan of treatment by the recommendation of Mr. Pott; and he has been enabled to carry his wiſhes more completely into execution by the diſcovery of the powers of the juice of ſavine, incorporated with cerate, in producing a copious purulent diſcharge from the ſurface of the ſkin. The following directions are given for making the ſavine cerate:—

'℞ Sabinæ recentis contuſæ,
Ceræ flavæ, ſingularum libram unam;
Adipis ſuillæ, libras quatuor.
Adipe et cerâ liquefactis, incoque ſabinam et cola.' p. 48.

The manner in which Mr. Crowther treats a diſeaſed joint is, to apply a bliſter to the front and lateral parts of the joint, and, after removing the cuticle, to dreſs it with the ceratum ſabinæ, care being taken at every dreſſing to wipe the ſore clean.

This ſalve occaſions a profuſe diſcharge of pus from the ſkin, and, in many inſtances, without cauſing any conſiderable pain to the patient, though, in others, it produces too much irritation; in which caſe it ſhould be lowered by the addition of ſome unguentum ceræ.

Some ſurgeons, ſays Mr. Crowther, have attributed the good effects, derivable from bliſters and ſimilar applications, to the counter-irritation which they occaſion; and, under the influence of ſuch an opinion, they have applied a ſucceſſion of bliſters without maintaining any continued diſcharge. But he has obſerved, that the ſucceſs attendant on his mode of treatment has always been proportionate to the diſcharge which it procured. He has ſtated thirty-one ſucceſsful caſes, in ſome of which the diſeaſe had proceeded ſo far as to cauſe the removal of the cartilage, and a conſequent grating ſenſation upon the motion of the joint. He alſo affirms, that he has ſucceeded in diſperſing ſeveral large abſceſſes

by the ſame means. He certainly deſerves well of the public, on account of the diligence and perſeverance with which he has proſecuted this and other parts of chirurgical practice.

The Pupil of Nature; or, candid Advice to the Fair Sex, on the Subjects of Pregnancy; Childbirth; the Diſeaſes incident to both; the fatal Effects of Ignorance and Quackery; and the moſt approved Means of promoting the Health, Strength, and Beauty of their Offſpring. By Martha Mears, Practitioner in Midwifery. 8vo. 3s. 6d. *Sewed.* Faulder. 1797.

Mrs. Martha Mears, practitioner in midwifery, undertakes to teach her fair country-women the important advantage of purſuing nature's plans in every thing that relates to the pregnant ſtate; but her genius is of ſo elevated a caſt, and the flights of her imagination are ſo very lofty, that we fear a large claſs of her amiable readers will be little benefited by her *ſublime* inſtructions. On a ſubject that required only plain remarks and directions, we were ſurpriſed to find a glare of tawdry colouring and affected embelliſhment. Mrs. Mears emphatically exhorts her fair readers to reſign themſelves with confidence to nature, as an unerring guide; and, if at any time they are tempted to forſake her, to check the fatal impulſe, by recollecting that they are not more liable to loſe their way 'in the darkneſs of ignorance, than in the twilight of ſuperficial knowledge,—in purſuing the meteors of fancy, or the falſe glare of impoſture and pretended ſcience.' Upon hearing her ſpeak for herſelf, the ladies, we doubt not, will do ample juſtice to ſo accompliſhed a midwife.

'It is my intention therefore to ſhew that the ſtudy of nature alone will direct us to the proper treatment of women after conception,—to the ſureſt means of preſerving their health, and of promoting the vigour, growth, and beauty of their offſpring. This idea is rather new in appearance than reality. It has not, indeed, been laid down as a principle, or made the foundation of any ſyſtem of midwifery; but its truth has been admitted by phyſicians of the greateſt eminence in every age and every country. I claim no other merit but that of a well-meant endeavour to preſent it in a clear and intereſting light. I have little more to do than to copy ſome pages from the volume of nature:—happy, if I could preſerve the beautiful ſimplicity of the original!—happier ſtill, if I could impreſs upon the minds of my fair country-women a few of its ſalutary maxims! I do not mean to amuſe them with an idle parade of learning: I do not come dreſſed out in a rich wardrobe of words to dazzle their attention: ſuch pomp, ſuch ornaments would ill become the humble handmaid of nature. Yet, in ſpite of prejudice, I hope my own ſex will grant a candid hearing to one who is herſelf a mother;—who has united the advantages of experience with thoſe of a regular education and a moderate ſhare of practice;—who knows no language but that of the heart;—and whoſe fondeſt wiſh, in the preſent attempt, is to allay the fears of pregnant women, to inſpire them with a juſt reliance on the powers of nature, and, above all, to guard them and their lovely children againſt the dangers of miſmanagement, of raſhneſs, of unfeeling and audacious quackery.' P. 2.

But theſe are not the whole of her profeſſional claims: ſhe has ſpent much time in ſtudying the writings of Harvey, Leake, Smellie, and Denman; but, while ſhe admires their talents, ſhe has a much higher reverence for *nature*, and thinks that 'the inſtructions of man, oppoſed to *hers*, are but the faint glimmerings of a taper compared with the radiance of the mid-day ſun.'

Of the qualifications of this lady it would therefore be improper to doubt, though we may have obſerved more novelty in the dreſs than in the matter of her eſſays.

Obſervations on the Tuſſis Convulſiva or Hooping Cough, as read at the Lyceum Medicum Londinenſe. By John Gale Jones. 8*vo.* 1*s.* Allen *and* Weſt. 1798.

This is a ſcion from the fertile ſtock of John Brown. It is our duty to warn practitioners and parents againſt doctrines and practice ſo injurious, and probably fatal. It is the author's principle, that pertuſſis is an aſthenic diſeaſe, to be cured by cordials and tonics; and it is his opinion that emetics are equally 'pernicious and uſeleſs.' It is known, however, that the diſeaſe is not peculiar to weak conſtitutions, and that in theſe it is ſlight and tranſitory; while ſtrong children are particularly affected, and the danger ariſes from inflammation. The uſual practice, indeed, in this cough, is not ſo decidedly ſucceſsful as to preclude farther trials; but it is neceſſary to diſcourage thoſe which muſt be manifeſtly hurtful. The whole of this pamphlet ſhows that the author is unacquainted with the diſeaſe of which he treats.

RELIGION.

An Enquiry into the Nature and Extent of the Inſpiration of the Apoſtles, and other Writers of the New Teſtament: conducted with a View to ſome late Opinions on the Subject. By William Parry. 8*vo.* 2*s.* Johnſon. 1797.

The ſubject of this work is of high importance to every Chriſtian. The belief in inſpiration, or a communication between God and man, ſeparates him entirely from the atheiſt, and many bodies of unbelievers; and the extent of this inſpiration diſtinguiſhes ſome claſſes of Chriſtians from others. We approve the mode of diſcuſſion and argumentation which we obſerve in this performance. The writer attends cloſely to his point: he inveſtigates it ſolely in connection with ſcripture; does not digreſs into reflections on various ſects of Chriſtians; and has placed the ſubject in ſuch a point of view, that it may be examined with pleaſure and profit by papiſts and proteſtants, churchmen and diſſenters. If he has made a ſmall miſtake in his preface, it has no effect on the body of the work: it is ſufficient that a clear ſtatement of the nature of inſpiration is deſirable, without the neceſſity of conſidering it as 'the turning point on which the Socinian controverſy in general depends;' for the *turning point* of that controverſy is the belief of one God in one perſon, in oppoſition to that of one God in three perſons; and the writings of Socinus and the Poliſh Brethren, on the inſpiration of the apoſtles, agree with thoſe of the moſt approved authors of the

Romiſh and Proteſtant churches. Though we muſt alſo take notice of the following inaccuracies of ſtatement, the correction of them will by no means detract from the ſtrength of the argument in favour of full inſpiration on every point relating to the Chriſtian faith.

'After the deſcent of the ſpirit, we never find them under the influence of miſtaken ideas. From that period, they appear to have had a juſt and conſiſtent view of chriſtianity, though it was not until ſome time after, that they were led to ſee the extent of their commiſſion to declare it to the Gentiles.' P. 18.

Here the firſt ſentence contradicts the ſecond, as well as the fact itſelf. Peter, after the deſcent of the holy ſpirit, was under the influence of miſtaken ideas, which were corrected by a ſubſequent communication.

'In the goſpel of Luke, we have many parts of the hiſtory of our Saviour, and ſome of his parables, which are not to be found in the other Evangeliſts. How did Luke know theſe things, or how was he enabled to record them, unleſs he had the ſame ſpirit of truth to guide him, as influenced the apoſtle John?' P. 53.

St. Luke's preface informs us, in what manner he collected the facts; and the ſuperintendance of Paul, according to the tradition of the church (and a very probable one it is), would ſecure him from error.

The ſcope of the work will be ſeen from the ſubſequent paſſage, to which we give our unlimited aſſent.

'This view of the ſubject will alſo readily enable a plain Chriſtian, in reading his New Teſtament, to diſtinguiſh what he is to conſider as inſpired truth. Every thing which the apoſtles have written or taught concerning chriſtianity; every thing which teaches him a religious ſentiment or a branch of duty, he muſt conſider as divinely true, as the mind and will of God, recorded under the direction and guidance of his ſpirit. It is not neceſſary that he ſhould inquire, whether what the apoſtles taught be *true*; all that he has to ſearch after is their *meaning*: and when he underſtands what they *meant*, he may reſt aſſured, that meaning is conſiſtent with the will of God, is divine infallible truth. The teſtimony of men who ſpoke and wrote by the ſpirit of God, is the teſtimony of God himſelf; and the teſtimony of the God of truth is the ſtrongeſt, and moſt indubitable of all demonſtration.' P. 27.

A Vindication of the Lord Biſhop of Landaff's Apology for the Bible, in a Series of Letters addreſſed to Mr. A. Macleod. By John Jones, Author of "A Defence of the Moſaic Creation." 12mo. 1s. Griffiths. 1797.

'Diſenveloped of every prejudice, I have examined your production with candour, and replied with a good temper, and with the beſt intention.' Thus the writer ſpeaks of himſelf: but his adverſary is repreſented as having 'a rocky and volcanic mind;' his queries are called impertinent; and his ignorance is ſaid to be eaſily detected. Hence Mr. Macleod will be little inclined to give

credit to this controverſialiſt for the goodneſs of his temper; and will, we think, have as great contempt for his theological, as we muſt have, from the following extract, for his mathematical knowledge.

'The 32d prop. of book the firſt, ſuch is the exterior angle of every triangle having one ſide produced is equal to the two interior and oppoſite angles, and the three interior angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles, and four corollaries out of the five are entirely falſe. For it is generally admitted, that every circle is divided into 360 degrees or parts, and that radius is 60 of thoſe parts or $\frac{1}{3}$ of the ſemi-circumference. But the proportion of the diameter to the circumference or of radius to the ſemi-circumference is as unity or 1 to 3,14159265358 9×. Hence it is evident, that radius ſhould be leſs than 60 degrees; and that by making 60 degrees the radius, the two interior and oppoſite angles are greater than the exterior angle, and all the angles in a triangle are not equal to two right angles, but greater by ſome degrees.' P. 30.

Such a demonſtration confutes itſelf; but another paſſage ſurpaſſes this in abſurdity—'Perhaps you may be ſurpriſed that the circumference is more than three times the diameter, and yet leſs than ſix times the radius.' Certainly, he will; for, little as we eſteem Mr Macleod's arguments againſt the biſhop*, we are convinced, from his writings, that he is a man of too much ſenſe and learning to be affected with this traſh.

The Injuſtice of claſſing Unitarians with Deiſts and Infidels. A Diſcourſe written with Reference to ſome Reflections from the Pens of Biſhops Newton, Hurd, and Horſley, Doctors White, Knox, and Fuller, Mrs. Piozzi, and others: and delivered at Tiverton, July 5, 1797. To which is prefixed, A Letter to W. Wilberforce, Eſq. occaſioned by ſome Paſſages in his late "Practical View†." By Joſhua Toulmin, D. D. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Johnſon. 1797.

The injuſtice which makes the ſubject of this diſcourſe is a lamentable inſtance of the folly of ſtigmatiſing adverſaries with opprobrious names, inſtead of correcting their errors by a calm appeal to reaſon and argument. Thus there was ſcarcely a reproachful epithet which Jews and Heathens did not uſe againſt the early Chriſtians, or the Athanaſians againſt the Arians, the Papiſts againſt the Proteſtants, the Lutherans againſt the Calviniſts, and the members of the Church of England againſt the Preſbyterians. Such conduct is truely diſgraceful; and, whenever we meet with it, we ſhall not fail to give it a due reprobation.

The queſtion is eaſily underſtood by thoſe who reflect on the ſtate of the world with reſpect to religion. The grand diviſion is into two claſſes; the Atheiſt and the Deiſt: i. e. the diſbeliever of the exiſtence, and the believer of the exiſtence, of a God. The claſs of the Deiſt is ſubdivided into two claſſes; that of the Deiſt properly ſo called, or the believer in one God, and that of the Polytheiſt, or the believer in many Gods. The claſs of the Deiſt

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol XVIII. p. 110.

† See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XX. p. 164.

forms two ſub-diviſions; that of the believer in revelation (for ſuch may a *Deiſt* be, though the term is uſually applied to an oppoſite ſenſe), and that of the diſbeliever in revelation. Of the believers in revelation, ſome have our ſcripture, either in the whole or in part, for the baſis of their faith, and others conceive a revelation to have been made by different means. Thoſe who believe in our ſcriptures, wholly or in part, compoſe three claſſes — Jews, Chriſtians, and Mohammedans. The firſt of theſe found their faith on the Moſaical law, and diſbelieve the miſſion of Chriſt and of Mohammed: the Chriſtians allow the Moſaical law to have been once obligatory, but make our Saviour the ſtandard of their faith, and deny the authority of Mohammed; while the followers of the Arabian pſeudo-prophet admit the revelations made to Moſes and Jeſus to have been valid, but believe that they are ſuperſeded by the ſuperior miſſion of Mohammed. The Chriſtians form two claſſes — that of the Unitarian, and that of the Trinitarian. The application of the former term to one claſs of Chriſtians, in oppoſition to others who claim the ſame title, has been the cauſe of much confuſion. As far as Unitarianiſm means the belief of one God, the greater part of the Deiſts, all the Jews, Chriſtians, and Mohammedans, belong to this claſs; and the Trinitarians might with reaſon complain, if they were excluded from this diviſion for avoiding the error of thoſe who do not conſider the Trinity as a modification of Unity. There is no impropriety in claſſing Unitarians with Jews and Mohammedans, with regard to their credence of one God: but, when Trinitarians claſs them with Jews and Infidels in any other reſpect, they are guilty of manifeſt injuſtice.

As far as the ſubject is diſcuſſed in the work before us, we agree with the author, who has in general done juſtice to his ſide of the queſtion; and, on other points of diſpute between the two claſſes of Chriſtians, it is not neceſſary for us to interpoſe our opinion.

The Utility of Learning in eſtabliſhing the Truth of Chriſtianity. A Sermon, preached at a General Ordination held at Fulham Palace, Auguſt 14, 1796. *By Wilfrid Clark, A. M. of St. Peter's College, Cambridge.* 4*to.* 2*s.* Cadell *and* Davies.

This diſcourſe is not only pertinent, from its ſubject, to the occaſion upon which it was preached, but is written with great chaſtity and preciſion of ſtyle. Among other topics of diſcuſſion, Mr. Clark has been particularly deſirous of manifeſting the impropriety of a ſole dependence on the internal evidence of Chriſtianity, becauſe no argument ſhould have more than its due force. We ought ever to bear in mind, that, in a queſtion which is not to be decided by demonſtration, but by moral evidence and probable teſtimony, it is from the combined effect of all the different ſpecies of proof, that complete conviction muſt ariſe.

A Sermon preached before the Honourable Houſe of Commons, at the Church of St. Margaret, Weſtminſter, on Wedneſday March 8, 1797, *being the Day appointed, by his Majeſty's royal Proclamation, to be obſerved as a Day of ſolemn Faſting and Humiliation. By the Rev. Thomas Powys, D. D. &c.* 4*to.* 1*s.* Stockdale. 1797.

'The diſcuſſion of topics merely political, is undoubtedly ill

ſuited to this and other conſecrated places, where the congregation is called together for a far different purpoſe than that of hearing the preacher's ſentiments on ſubjects of this nature.' P. 6.

In this particular we agree with the preacher. 'But the circumſtances of the preſent times are unprecedented.' The divine ſeems to forget what he had ſaid above, and to miſtake his pulpit for a ſeat in the houſe of commons.

'The queſtion is reduced ſimply to this — Is that conſtitution, which has ſo long guarded the liberties, and promoted the happineſs, of this country, worth preſerving? And have we need of any religion? In the preſent conteſt, every thing we hold dear in this world, and all our hopes in another, are attempted to be wreſted from us. I hold it, therefore, now to be the duty of every man, to embrace every opportunity which his ſtation and profeſſion give him, and to exert every ability God hath beſtowed upon him, in warning the thoughtleſs, and encouraging every one, to the utmoſt of his power, to make head againſt the dangers with which we are ſo imminently threatened. If, in the courſe of what I may have to ſay, I recal your thoughts to any of the acts of unexampled cruelty, which, without diſtinction of age, ſex, rank, or abilities, have marked the government of the tyrants of the day amongſt our enemies, I wiſh it to be underſtood, that I refer to them, not with a view of exciting your indignation, or wounding your feelings, but I alledge them as proofs, that all thoſe enormities, all thoſe violations of every duty, both ſocial and civil, ſprang from, and were the immediate conſequences of, their forſaking their God.' P. 6.

Our preacher now goes on with the uſual topics againſt the French, not conſidering that a day of ſolemn faſting and humiliation would be better employed in probing our own ſins, than in expoſing thoſe of our neighbours.

An Attempt to recover the original Reading of 1 *Sam. chap. XIII. v.* 1. *To which is added, an Enquiry into the Duration of Solomon's Reign: interſperſed with Notes on various Paſſages of Scripture. By John Moore, LL. B. &c.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* Rivingtons. 1797.

Many fruitleſs attempts have been made to give a conſiſtent interpretation of the verſe which begins the thirteenth chapter of the firſt book of Samuel. Manuſcripts and verſions afford little, if any, explanatory aſſiſtance. What information was intended to be conveyed by this verſe? After a compariſon of different paſſages relating to other monarchs at the commencement of their reſpective reigns, which are all ſimilar to this, except in the name of the perſon and the numbers, we agree with Mr. Moore, that the hiſtorian meant to inform us of the age of Saul when he began to reign, and the number of the years of his ſway. If this is really the caſe, we have only occaſion to ſupply the numeral letter between בן and שנה, and to correct the error in ושתי. On the latter words, the writer properly refers to St. Paul's aſſertion (Acts xiii. 21.) that Saul reigned forty years; a circumſtance which is corroborated by the teſtimony of Joſephus, and by a review of the events of the reign in queſtion. We might, therefore, fairly inſert, for ושתי,

the words וארבעים שנה. Now ב is the letter for two, and מ for forty; two letters, which, from having originally a greater reſemblance than at preſent, might have been miſtaken, the one for the other: and a ſcribe having once inſerted ב, the error might have been propagated; and, in ſucceeding times, the numeral letter was changed for the noun of number ſtill remaining in our copies.

The other conjecture, founded on the ſame principle, does not give us ſo much ſatisfaction.

'Conjecture therefore for conjecture, it has ſtruck me that the text originally ſtood thus: בן נן שנה שאול במלכו and that נן, the letters by which Saul's age was expreſt, and which together make up twenty-ſeven, were, on account of their great reſemblance to the preceding word, either ſkipt by a careleſs tranſcriber, or intentionally omitted by an ignorant one, who miſtook them for a needleſs and faulty repetition.' P. 48.

This ſuppoſes Saul to have married at thirteen, and Jonathan to have been not fourteen when he was at the head of a thouſand men. This appears rather a forced hypotheſis; but it has a ſtronger ground of probability, as the writer ſhows from the inſtances of Joſiah and Ahaz, than perſons born in theſe cold climates are willing at firſt to allow. According to theſe emendations, the verſe will run thus: 'Saul was twenty-ſeven years old when he began to reign; and he reigned forty years over Iſrael.' The uſe of Italics is a dangerous experiment; or this emendation might be recommended for the future editions of the vulgar bible; but when we recollect what has been done with the forged verſe 1 John, v. 7. and how eaſily, from the careleſsneſs of printers, the Italics might be changed, we would rather leave the verſe as it is, than take a liberty which many would cenſure as preſumptuous.

An Eſſay, tending to ſhew the Advantages which reſult to Revelation, from its being conveyed to us in the Form of Hiſtory. Publiſhed, in purſuance of the Will of the late Mr. Norris, as having gained the annual Prize inſtituted by him in the Univerſity of Cambridge. By John Spencer Cobbold, A. M. &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1797.

We do not conſider this eſſay as altogether worthy of the prize which it obtained; but, as its merits have been diſcuſſed within the precincts of the univerſity, we ſhall not exerciſe the ſeverity of criticiſm. We ſhall merely extract ſome paſſages, deſiring the writer to aim in future at accuracy and perſpicuity.

'Now, as the queſtion to be diſcuſſed is, in ſome ſort, of a comparative nature, it will be of uſe, in the firſt place, to take a view of the different modes of communication, which may be thought to conteſt the palm of preference with that, of which it is the object of this eſſay to point out the advantages: — every diſadvantage attendant on the latter, and not diſcoverable in the former, will be a ſort of negative weight in the ſcale of the latter, which, if it does not abſolutely depreſs the balance in its favour, will, yet, give it a relative preponderance.' P. 1.

'In queſtions of compariſon, we employ ideas only of relation — excellence is argued from correlative deficiency; and a diſadvantage on one ſide implies a negative advantage on the other.

'A revelation, however conveyed through the channel of hiſtory, does not reſt its claim to notice on the merit of negative advantages; it poſſeſſes, alſo, merits of a poſitive nature, too obvious to be overlooked, and too important to be diſregarded.' P. 7.

We could not avoid thinking, on the peruſal of theſe ſentences, of the negative victories mentioned in the houſe of commons.

'Their record of a miracle is as deſtitute of the pomp of language, as it is of the pride of enthuſiaſm. We ſee no preparatory attempt to miſlead the judgment by dazzling the imagination: "Riſe and walk" were the words, by which the lame man was reſtored, and the dead man was revived:—the conſcious element bluſhed itſelf to wine at the mere preſence of Divinity; and the imperious ocean, at the words, "Peace, be ſtill," ſunk into obedient tranquillity.' P. 16.

The author was determined to ſhow us, by the turgidity of his own ſtyle, the ſuperiority of that of the evangelical hiſtorian; but we would aſk him what imperious *ocean* it was which thus ſubſided into tranquillity?

EDUCATION.

Grammaire Angloiſe comparée avec la Grammaire Françoiſe; dans laquelle les Principes et les Tours de Phraſe des deux Langues ſont raiſonnés d'une manière très-nouvelle, et prouvés par des Exemples, &c. par Nicolas Salmon.

A Compariſon of Engliſh Grammar with the French; in which the Principles and idiomatic Expreſſions of the two Languages are diſcuſſed with Novelty, and illuſtrated by Examples. Small 8vo. 4s. Dilly. 1797.

This work will prove an acceptable preſent to thoſe foreigners who, being already converſant in the French language, are deſirous of becoming acquainted with the Engliſh. The author obſerves, in his introduction, that he has followed a plan different from that which the generality of grammarians have purſued. The difference to which he alludes, however, is leſs important than he affects to imagine. Others have treated of phraſeology and ſyntax after they have claſſed the words of the language, and unfolded the declenſions and conjugations; but he, in treating of each part of ſpeech, explains at once whatever relates to it.

In his rules for the pronunciation of our language, he chiefly follows Sheridan. His remarks on the article are, in general, pertinent. In treating of nouns, he has fallen into ſome errors. *Hair* and *delight*, he ſays, have no plural: but has he not read the indecent line in the Rape of the Lock, in which mention is twice made of *hairs?* and has he not heard of the *delights* of love? — When he ſpeaks of *neſs* as a termination, he introduces ſome nouns which, even if they have ſometimes been uſed, de-

ſerve to be exploded; as, *ineffectualneſs*, *inhoſpitableneſs*, *innocuouſneſs*, &c.

He dwells long on the pronoun. He has taken opportunities of enforcing, and ſometimes of invalidating, the obſervations of ſeveral Engliſh grammarians; and, in the courſe of compariſon between the languages which he profeſſes to examine, he detects occaſional errors of French philologiſts and other writers.

The uſes and conſtructions of the other parts of ſpeech are not ill explained; the examples are numerous and appoſite; and the work, upon the whole, reflects credit on the diligence and judgment of the author.

Guide pour la Langue Angloiſe, et pour la Langue Françoiſe, &c.

A Guide for the Engliſh and French Tongues, in which the uſeful and the agreeable are united, and the Conſtruction, the Genius, and the Beauties of each Language, are fully diſplayed. By Nicolas Salmon. Small 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.* Dilly. 1797.

Mr. Salmon has here given a copious ſeries of examples, which the foreign learners of our language, and individuals who ſtudy the French tongue, may read with advantage, though this will not be exactly equal in the two caſes, as the former will ſometimes meet with expreſſions inconſiſtent with the Engliſh idiom. The ſentences, though detached in appearance, are connected in reality; as will appear from the following extract.

'*Nous* allions à Delphes, *Lycas et moi*, porter notre offrande à Apollon.

'Déjà nous *apercevions* la colline ſur laquelle le temple, *orné de* colonnes *d'une blancheur éclatante*, s'élève *du ſein d'*un bois de lauriers vers la *voûte* azurée *des cieux*.

'Plus loin, nos *yeux ſe perdoient* ſur *la plaine immenſe des mers*.

'*Il étoit* midi.

'Le ſable *brûloit* nos pieds, et *à chaque pas que nous faiſions, il s'élevoit* une pouſſiére *enflammée*, qui *nous brûloit les* yeux et *ſe colloit ſur* nos lèvres *deſſéchées*.

'*Lycas and I* were going to Delphos, to carry our offering to Apollo.

'We *could* already *perceive* the hill on which the temple, *adorned with* columns *remarkably white*, riſes *out of* a grove of laurel-trees towards the azure *vaulted arch of heaven*.

'Farther off, our *eyes ſtrayed* on *the ſpacious main*.

'*It was then* noon.

'The ſand *ſcorched* our feet, and *every ſtep we walked raiſed* a *hot* duſt, which *burnt our* eyes and *ſtuck to* our *parched* lips.' P. 54.

An inveſtigation of the uſe of the French particle *ne*, and other uſeful diſcuſſions, are introduced; but too great a degree of perſonality is mingled with theſe diſquiſitions.

A ſhort Grammar of the Engliſh Language, in two Parts: ſimplified to the Capacities of Children: with Notes, and a great Variety of entertaining and uſeful Exerciſes, upon a Plan entirely new. By John Hornſey, Schoolmaſter, Scarborough. 12*mo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* *Bound.* Bent.

Mr. Hornſey does not offer this performance as a work wholly

new. It is 'principally compiled (he ſays) from the writings of our firſt grammarians,' whom he has thus arranged—'Lowth, Ward, Johnſon, Blair, Harris, Coote, &c.' but, as it has been his chief ſtudy to render it uſeful to children, he has not adhered to the plan of any of thoſe authors. About one half of the volume conſiſts of exerciſes in bad Engliſh, which the learners are to correct. The grammatical rules are ſhort and perſpicuous.

It is proper to obſerve, that this grammar has met with encouragement, the ſecond edition (enlarged) being now before us.

A Dialogue between a Lady and her Pupils, deſcribing a Journey through England and Wales; in which a Detail of the different Arts and Manufactures of each City and Town is accurately given; interſperſed with Obſervations and Deſcriptions in Natural Hiſtory. Deſigned for young Ladies and Schools. By Mrs. Brook. 8vo. 3s. 6d. *Sewed.* Rickman. 1797.

We give this lady credit for the benevolence of her intention; but we queſtion the utility of her work. No young perſon will be able to recollect the diſtance of every town from London, or be much impreſſed with the curſory mention of the particular manufactures and the different rivers in each county. It cannot be of any great conſequence for Mrs. Brook's pupils to be informed, that 'Wighton is 192; Pocklington, 196; Great Driffield, 195; Hornſey, 188; Frodingham, 195; Kilham, 200; Bridlington, 208; and Hunmanby, 209 miles from London.' This intelligence would be proper in an itinerary; but it ſeems quite out of place in the preſent volume.

The little Family. Written for the Amuſement and Inſtruction of Young Perſons. By Charlotte Sanders. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. *Sewed.* Dilly. 1797.

This work is a proper manual for children, being well calculated for their 'amuſement and inſtruction.' There are ſome parts of it, indeed, which are not ſo uſeful as they might have been rendered; but this negative cenſure is all that can juſtly be ſaid againſt it.

POETRY.

Poems by the late George Monck Berkeley, Eſq. LL. B. F. S. S. A. with a Preface by the Editor, conſiſting of ſome Anecdotes of Mr. Monck Berkeley and ſeveral of his Friends. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. *Boards.* Leigh *and* Sotheby. 1797.

It was certainly proper to mention the preface in the title-page to this volume, as it conſiſts of five hundred and eighty-one pages. The editor is the mother of Mr. Berkeley; and ſhe has related in theſe pages whatever ſhe recollects of her ſon, her family, and her friends, with the pardonable garrulity of one left alone in age, whoſe chief enjoyment is perhaps the memory of the departed. If the words and actions which are thus minutely recorded were thoſe of biſhop Berkeley, the book would indeed be valuable; but his grandſon affords one of the many inſtances where the promiſes of childhood have not been anſwered in maturity. The anecdotes

with which the volume is filled are moſtly unintereſting: they are trifling in themſelves, and do not relate to perſons who can make trifles important. We were, however, amuſed with a Jacobite plot of the editor's grandfather, related on the authority of archbiſhop Potter. Of the many ſchemes that have been deviſed for king-killing, this ſurely is the moſt curious:

'King William, who valued himſelf much on his horſemanſhip, was frequently mortified by hearing his courtiers admiring Mr. Cherry's wonderful ſkill in riding, and reſolved at length that he would follow Mr. Cherry every where. After ſome days, Mr. Cherry, finding that it was not chance that conſtantly kept his majeſty juſt behind him, determined to try to ſerve his, as he conceived, *lawful* ſovereign, by breaking the neck of the *uſurper*. He went over many very dangerous places. The king, excellently mounted, and a very good horſeman, ſtill followed. One day, when the ſtag took the ſoil, Mr. Cherry inſtantly plunged into a frightfully deep and broad part of the Thames. The king went to the brink, looked, and looked again, then ſhook his head, and retired. His majeſty thought the actual poſſeſſion of *three* kingdoms better than the *fame* of being as good a horſeman as Mr. Cherry, thus yielding the palm to Mr. Cherry. He never followed him afterwards, to the great comfort of his majeſty's attendants.' P. ccccxxvi.

The poems are upon trivial ſubjects. As a poet, Mr. Berkeley ſeems to have poſſeſſed little genius or taſte. We ourſelves can ſelect no piece as excellent; and will therefore give

'what the juſtly celebrated Mr. Dunſter termed this exquiſitely beautiful ſong:

'Grief and Mis'ry, hence away,
This is Nina's wedding day;
All her ſorrows now are paſt,
May her joys for ever laſt.
Joy attend this happy pair;
He is brave as ſhe is fair.
Guarded by the god of love,
May they ever conſtant prove!' P. 109.

As a ſpecimen of the author's powers upon more ſerious ſubjects, we extract an epitaph, which he wrote, not indeed '*ſtans pede in uno*,' but 'with one ſtocking on, the other off!'

'Peace to the ſpot where his remains are laid;
May pureſt bliſs await his friendly ſhade!
Nature by him had done her nobleſt part;
She gave a head, nor yet denied a heart.' P. 18.

The Campaign, a Poetical Eſſay, in Two Books. Dedicated (by Permiſſion) to his royal Highneſs the Duke of York. By Robert Brown, Corporal in the Coldſtream Guards. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1797.

The ſentiments of this poem are humane and juſt, and the language and verſification are worthy of praiſe. The author needs not that indulgence with which we ſhould willingly have treated the

production of 'an humble and unlettered man.' The work, in itſelf reſpectable, deſerves high commendation, when the low rank of the writer is conſidered. We extract part of a melancholy tale, in which Mr. Brown has deſcribed what 'was literally the unhappy fate of a great number of both ſexes on the night of the 16th of January, 1795,' during the retreat of the Britiſh army. The mutual affection of William and his wife has been previouſly expreſſed.

——————'Maria by his ſide,
With ſtrength and courage more than feminine,
Wreſtled againſt the furious northern blaſt,
Whoſe raging violence whirl'd up clouds of ſand
Mingled with drifted ſnow, ruſhing along
The parched deſert. Down her lovely cheeks
Fatigue exceſſive often forc'd the tears,
Trickling in ſilence, which the bitter air
Froze as they fell; while in her arms the babe,
Stiffen'd with cold, in feeble plaintive cries
Pierc'd their bleeding hearts; they knew his wants,
His ſufferings, with their own; but here no help,
Aſſiſtance none for him or them is found.
But now the horrors of a darkſome night
To all their troubles add a keener edge;
Their ſtrength and hopes decreaſing as the night
Gloomy aroſe; no town or city near,
Whoſe lofty domes and tow'ring ſpires might bleſs
Their weeping eyes, and fix their wavering hope;
Not even a lonely cot or veſtige ſeen
Of human habitation; all was wild
Far as the duſk horizon; drooping, ſad,
Hearts full of anguiſh, bodies full of pain,
Weary, exhauſted, down they ſit beneath
Th' inviting ſhelter of a frizzled buſh,
Whoſe angry briſtles brav'd the northern blaſt
With hollow whiſtling ſound. Soon balmy Sleep,
Death's image, now his harbinger, conſigns
Them both to reſt; and, every ſenſe faſt bound
In ſweet forgetfulneſs, the driving ſnow,
The bleak and parching winds, no more they feel,
And even within the yawning jaws of death
Find ſweet repoſe, unconſcious of their fate.' P. 50.

In pages 18 and 19, are four ſucceſſive lines, of which the terminations are unpleaſantly alike.

We were greatly pleaſed with an image which the writer probably deſcribes from experience.

'The weary ſoldier takes a ſweet repoſe
In ſafety; for the ſwift-deſcending ſhell,
Whoſe hiſſing curvature with ſteady eye
He frequent watch'd, no more diſturbs his reſt.' P. 23.

The Druriad: or, Strictures on the principal Performers of Drury-Lane Theatre. A ſatirical Poem. With Notes critical and explanatory. 4*to.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Richardſons. 1798.

This poem will not be very intereſting to any readers unconnected with the green-room. It it not merely a ſmooth verſification that can ſupport ſo trite a ſubject. We quote the firſt lines as the beſt.

'*Author.*

'Let loftier poets tune their martial lays,
And ſing the patriot's or the hero's praiſe;
For caſual fare, like hackney-coachmen, ply,
Blame where they can, and where they cannot,—lie:
Each Paſquin now may laſh his empty brother,
Or, like thin ſpiders, prey upon each other!
Snug in my ſhell, I ſhun their watchful fury,
Laugh at them all, and ſing the praiſe of Drury;
My careleſs muſe now hovers round her walls,
And lifts her dome yet higher than St. Paul's.

'*Friend.*

'A wretched ſimile! of Eaſtern hue,
'Tis neither gaudy, elegant, or new;
Would you be all that e'er poor bard deſir'd,
Be read by parſons, by the fair admir'd,
To Love and Laura tune th' enervate lyre,
Let hot-preſs'd paper glow with am'rous fire;
Ambroſial flow'rs twine round your mood and tenſe,
And labour'd nothings take the place of ſenſe.' P. 1.

An Elegy to the Memory of the Right Honourable Edmund Burke. By the Rev. John Chetwood Euſtace. 4*to.* 1*s.* Rivingtons. 1798.

Theſe ſtanzas are harmonious; and, in ſaying this, we have given them all the praiſe to which they are entitled. As a ſpecimen, we quote the effects of Mr. Burke's eloquence.

Yet, did his accents vibrate on their ear,
Thy potent arm uprais'd the regal ſhield,—
Thy hand indignant ſeized the thirſty ſpear,—
Thy martial legions ruſh'd into the field.

Obedient Ocean ſmooth'd her ſubject tide,
To bear thy daring ſons from pole to pole,—
Applauding Europe ſaw thy navies ride,
And heard with joy thy vengeful thunders roll.' P. 11.

Mr. Euſtace concludes this part too abruptly, and does not inform us how 'the martial legions' returned.

Sketches in Verſe. By Thomas Robinſon. 4*to.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Johnſon.

We have ſeen every poſſible combination of rhyme in ſonnets: but, in one of this gentleman's ſonnets, are ſome lines that have no rhymes at all: theſe fourteen lines are alſo remarkable as being preceded by three quarto pages of preface. The poems are frequently obſcure; and they never riſe above mediocrity.

A Collection of Engliſh Songs, with an Appendix of Original Pieces. 8*vo.* 3*s.* Elmſly. 1796.

Mr. Dalrymple has ſelected theſe ſongs with taſte. Many of them are reſcued from old and ſcarce works; and, what is no common merit for a collection of ſongs, the contents of the volume correſpond with its motto:

'Not *one immoral, one corrupted thought!*
One line, which, *dying*, he could *wiſh* to *blot*.'

Killarney, a Poem. By *Joſeph Atkinſon, Eſq.* 4*to.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Dilly. 1795.

Thoſe who have viſited Killarney may be reminded of its beauties by this poem; but thoſe who have not ſeen it, will find Mr. Atkinſon's deſcription languid and unintereſting.

DRAMA.

The Myſterious Marriage, or the Heirſhip of Roſelva. A Play, in Three Acts. By Harriet Lee. 8*vo.* 2*s.* Robinſons. 1798.

The author informs us in her Advertiſement, that,

'as the theatre will ſoon probably become "a land of apparitions," ſhe haſtens to put in her claim to originality of idea, though the charm of novelty may be loſt. The female ſpectre *ſhe* has conjured up, was undoubtedly the offſpring of her own imagination; yet, by the ill-fortune of keeping the play conſiderably leſs than "nine years," ſhe is now obliged to produce it to a diſadvantage, or expoſe herſelf to the charge of being a ſervile imitator.'

We are ſorry that we cannot beſtow on this drama the ſame commendation which the 'Canterbury Tales*' of the ſame writer ſo juſtly deſerved. The ſerious ſtories in that work diſcovered originality, and, in ſome inſtances, ſublimity of conception: in the 'Myſterious Marriage,' we find little that can compenſate the unintereſting nature and aukward developement of the plot. The characters, except thoſe of a comic nature, think and expreſs themſelves in the ſame ſtrain. In repreſentation, it might perhaps have ſucceeded by the force of ſtage effect; but, in the cloſet, it never, we think, can command attention. We extract that ſcene in which the ſpectre is introduced.

'*Albert.* See that the tapers burn—and then to-bed.
Are the heavens angry, that they chide us thus?
An 'twere their will to viſit ſinful heads,
I well might fear now! Yet the forked flaſh
Paſt innocent—and feeble-minded man
Betrays himſelf.—It is the hour of reſt;
And all the mingled ſounds that ſwell'd ſo late
Through the low vaults and hollows of the caſtle,
Are ſunk to ſtillneſs.

* See page 170.

Thought's fantaſtic brood
Alone is waking:—preſent—paſt, and future,
Wild, mis-ſhaped hopes, and horrible rememb'rings,
Now riſe a hideous and half viewleſs chaos
To fancy's viſion—till the ſtout heart freeze
At its own retroſpect.—Mem'ry, ſtop there!
Not a jot further!—Rather, thou bright ſun,
Thou dazzling future, riſe with godlike ſplendour,
And gild the vaſt horizon of ambition.
Say it be clouded by a woman's will!
Yet is ſhe woman—therefore to be lured;
A *young* one—therefore to be bribed by gauds:
And I will tempt her with ſuch golden glories
As her weak ſex would graſp at, though perdition
Gaped in the gulf between!—This is her chamber!
Perchance ſhe ſleeps unguarded—at the worſt,
A lover's paſſion, and a huſband's right,
Shall juſtify th' intruſion!—*Who dare bar me?*

[*The Ghoſt of Conſtantia, ſhrouded in the lighteſt white drapery, appears before the door, paſſing the pallet of Rodolphus, who ſleeps ſweetly.*]

Ha! have my ſenſes conjured up a phantom?
Speak, viſion, if thou canſt! (*advancing.*)
(*She gazes intently, and motions him from her.*)
Oh horrible! (*He leans againſt a pillar.*)
[*Vivid lightning—the Ghoſt glides into the chamber of the Counteſs.*]

'*Albert* (*after a pauſe*). I am a coward—and my fears have ſhaped
The thing that is not.—Yet I ſaw it plain—
Moſt manifeſt to view.
Nor, though the heav'ns had ſhower'd down ſheets of fire,
Could it have ſo appall'd me.' P. 66.

The Caſtle Spectre; a Drama. In five Acts. Firſt performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane, on Thurſday, December 14, 1797. *By M. G. Lewis, Eſq. M. P. Author of the Monk, &c.* 8vo. 2s. Bell. 1798.

The Caſtle Spectre, like the Monk * of the ſame author, cannot obtain the approbation of the critic; but it has ſecured, what Mr. Lewis perhaps values more, the applauſe of the multitude. It is the common ſtory of modern romance—a murderer and uſurper, the rightful heireſs dwelling in the caſtle unconſcious of her claims to it, the father confined in a dungeon for a long courſe of years. There is ſcarcely one original incident in the piece; and yet the whole is wrought into a plot highly intereſting, and conducted with uncommon ſkill. No genius is diſplayed in the more elevated dialogue; no wit ſhines in the comic parts: the ſtory and the ſtage effect occaſion the popularity of the Caſtle Spectre.

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIX. p. 194.

Mr. Lewis has frequently imitated the ſtyle of Schiller. The reader will recogniſe this in the uſurper's dream.

Oſm. A mere dream, ſay'ſt thou? Haſſan, 'twas a dream of ſuch horror! Did ſuch dreams haunt my bittereſt foe, I ſhould wiſh him no ſeverer puniſhment. Mark you not, how the ague of fear ſtill makes my limbs tremble? Rolls not my eye, as if ſtill gazing on the Spectre? Are not my lips convulſed, as were they yet preſt by the kiſs of corruption? Oh! 'twas a ſight, that might have bleached joy's roſy cheek for ever, and ſtrowed the ſnows of age upon youth's auburn ringlets! Yet, away with theſe terrors; — Haſſan, thou ſaidſt, 'twas but a dream: I was deceived by fancy. Haſſan, thou ſaidſt true; there is not, there cannot be, a world to come.

Haſſ. My lord! ——

Oſm. Anſwer me not! — Let me not hear the damning truth! — Tell me not, that flames await me! — that for moments of bliſs I muſt endure long ages of torture! — Plunge me rather in the thickeſt gloom of atheiſm! — Say, that with my body muſt periſh my ſoul! — For, oh! ſhould my fearful dream be prophetic —— Hark, fellows! — Inſtruments of my guilt, liſten to my puniſhment! — Methought I wandered through the low-browed caverns, where repoſe the reliques of my anceſtors! — My eye dwelt with awe on their tombs, with diſguſt on mortality's ſurrounding emblems! — Suddenly a female form glided along the vault: it was Angela! — She ſmiled upon me, and beckoned me to advance. I flew towards her; my arms were already unclofed to claſp her — when ſuddenly her figure changed, her face grew pale, a ſtream of blood guſhed from her boſom! —— Haſſan, 'twas Evelina!

Saib and *Haſſan.* Evelina!

Oſm. Such as when ſhe ſank at my feet expiring, while my hand graſped the dagger ſtill crimſoned with her blood! — "We meet again this night!" murmured her hollow voice! "Now ruſh to my arms, but firſt ſee what you have made me! — Embrace me, my bridegroom! We muſt never part again!" — While ſpeaking, her form withered away: the fleſh fell from her bones; her eyes burſt from their ſockets: a ſkeleton, loathſome and meagre, claſped me in her mouldering arms! ——

Saib. Moſt horrible!

Oſm. Her infected breath was mingled with mine; her rotting fingers preſſed my hand, and my face was covered with her kiſſes! — Oh! then, then how I trembled with diſguſt! — And now blue diſmal flames gleamed along the walls; the tombs were rent aſunder; bands of fierce ſpectres ruſhed round me in frantic dance! — Furiouſly they gnaſhed their teeth while they gazed upon me, and ſhrieked in loud yell — "Welcome, thou fratricide! — Welcome, thou loſt for ever!" — Horror burſt the bands of ſleep; diſtracted I flew hither: — But my feelings — words are too weak, too powerleſs to expreſs them.' P. 66.

It is proper to obſerve, that, wherever Mr. Lewis has borrowed, he has acknowledged his obligation.

We ſhould diſapprove this drama, did we judge of it only in the cloſet; but its effect in repreſentation is admirable.

It is aſtoniſhing that the audience ſhould have endured the witleſs vulgarity of the epilogue. Surely it is time that ſuch contemptible productions ſhould ceaſe to diſgrace the Engliſh ſtage.

NOVELS.

Iſidora of Gallicia: a Novel. By Mrs. Hugill. 2 Vols. 12*mo.* 6*s. Sewed.* Lee *and* Hurſt. 1798.

The firſt volume of this novel pleaſed us. The ſtory does not exceed the bounds of probability, and yet keeps the attention alive; but, when we came to the peruſal of the ſecond, we were not inclined to continue our commendation. Subterranean paſſages, damp vaults, murders, and a variety of horrors, form the greater part of its contents. The incidents alſo are ſo confuſed, and the ſtory ſo complicated, that it is difficult to trace the plot, or unravel the perplexity.

Modern writers of novels, indeed, are too fond of crowding their pages with ſuperfluous incidents and characters. It is the province of true genius to produce the livelieſt intereſt from the ſimpleſt narrative of facts; and, where the circumſtances of the ſtory are few, to agitate the heart with ſtrokes of nature, and captivate the fancy with imaginary creations. However, though we cannot give the preſent work the higheſt praiſe, we are willing to allow it ſome merit.

The Shrove-tide Child; or, the Son of a Monk. A Novel. Tranſlated from the French. 2 Vols. 8*vo.* 8*s. Sewed.* Lee *and* Hurſt. 1797.

This novel abounds with the frivolity and indecency for which French works of fiction are remarkable. We ſhall not give any quotations, as the beſt we could ſelect would make poor compenſation for the indecent paſſages which ſo frequently occur. We lament that ſuch books as the preſent ſhould find their way to the preſs, as no good can, though much harm may, reſult from them.

Caroline. By a Lady. 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 7*s.* 6*d. Sewed.* Hookham *and* Carpenter. 1798.

We have ſcarcely ever read any thing ſo improbable and unintereſting as the contents of theſe pages, even in this age of abſurdity, when milliners and ſtaymakers ſcatter their ridiculous inventions, under the title of a novel. As every woman is now 'a lady,' we need not examine our author's pretenſions to this title; but, from the occaſional vulgarity of her language and deſcriptions, they cannot be very high.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

The Teſtimony of Truth to exalted Merit: or a Biographical Sketch of the Right Honourable the Counteſs of Derby; in Refutation of a falſe and ſcandalous Libel. 4*to.* 2*s.* Cawthorn. 1797.

The libel to which this 'Teſtimony' is an anſwer, was briefly

noticed by us in our Review for July laſt. There is nothing in the anſwer but what was before known to the public, and nothing, we believe, inconſiſtent with truth. Malice itſelf cannot deny the merits of Miſs Farren, in public or in private life; and there is no reaſon to doubt 'that the rectitude which preſerved her from incurring merited cenſure in ſituations the moſt critical and trying will enable her to maintain the exalted ſtation to which ſhe has arrived, with an honour equal to the virtue which has procured it.'

The Philanthrope: after the Manner of a Periodical Paper. 8vo. 4s. *Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1797.

The ſtyle of this work is correct, and the morality unexceptionable. We do not perceive that any advantage has accrued from giving, to the pieces of which it conſiſts, the appearance of periodical papers. To preſerve that appearance, a dramatic delineation of character is neceſſary; and this is not to be found in the Philanthrope. We were pleaſed with the compariſon, in the ſecond paper, of human life to a maſquerade; and both the tale of Apelles and its companion are well related. In pourtraying characters, the author has not been ſucceſsful; they are the coarſe outlines of the caricaturiſt. The deteſtable malignity of Placidio is treated with too much tenderneſs: he is deſcribed as ſteady in hatred, and dexterous in detraction; and yet it is ſaid, that, 'excepting theſe blemiſhes, he is entitled to be a popular character.' The robber and the aſſaſſin might be praiſed with equal propriety.

A Guide from Glaſgow, to ſome of the moſt remarkable Scenes in the Highlands of Scotland, and to the Falls of the Clyde. By James M'Nayr. 8vo. 5s. 6d. *Boards.* Richardſon. 1797.

The importance of works of this kind, when well executed, muſt be acknowledged by all travellers. The preſent volume comprehends nearly all that Mr. Pennant includes in the *petit tour* of Scotland; 'a tract unparalleled for the variety and frequency of fine and magnificent ſcenery.' The author furniſhes the traveller with ſuch information as is moſt neceſſary, and guides the common eye to thoſe objects which are moſt worthy of notice. The account of Scone will ſerve as a ſpecimen of this performance.

'Scone now attracts the attention of the traveller, only as the ancient reſidence of the kings of Scotland, and, of conſequence, as the ſcene of many important and brilliant exploits. It ſtands upon a gentle riſing ground, in an extenſive plain, on the banks of the Tay, about a mile north of Perth, enveloped by ſome of the largeſt and fineſt trees in the kingdom, and beautified by numerous ſhrubs and young plantations. The palace of Scone is built in that noble and venerable ſtile of architecture, which prevailed about the beginning of the ſeventeenth century. It is about two hundred feet in length, and one hundred in breadth. The hall, or gallery, which is one hundred and forty feet in length, is adorned by paintings of a ſtag hunt in all its various ſtages —

of the exerciſe of hawking, and — of hunting the wild boar and bull. The celebrated chair, the palladium of the Scottiſh empire, and in which the Scottiſh kings here underwent the ceremony of coronation, is now one of the appendages of royalty in Weſtminſter Abbey.

'The view from the palace, weſtward, is rich and picturesque; terminating on your left in the hills above the Tay and the Erne, which here ſeem to unite, and which, with the Grampian mountains — the boundary to the right — form a vaſt amphitheatre, whoſe area exhibits, beſides the town and bridge of Perth, ſuch a luxuriant combination of variegated encloſures of the moſt charming verdure, villages, gentlemen's ſeats, cotton mills and bleaching greens, as is ſcarcely, elſewhere, to be met with.' P. 86.

A Treatiſe on Carriages. Comprehending Coaches, Chariots, Phaetons, Curricles, Whiſkeys, &c. Together with their proper Harneſs. In which the fair Prices of every Article are accurately ſtated. By William Felton, Coach-maker. 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 1*l.* 5*s.* *Boards.* Debrett.

Some of the chief coach-makers have reviewed this book, and paſſed it over in ſilence. Some other artiſans ſpeak of it with reſpect. From good *information*, we are warranted to ſay that the prices are fair; and we *know* that the obſervations and inſtructions are judicious. Every man who may be inclined to build a carriage (though there are few who in theſe times will be eager to incur that expenſe) will find his advantage in peruſing theſe volumes, as they juſtly appreciate the utility of many fancied improvements, and give in every point the beſt advice.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

MRS. Bryan, while ſhe returns thanks for our favourable account of her 'Compendious Syſtem of Aſtronomy,' is apprehenſive that the 'corrections and animadverſions' which we offered may 'by ſome people be miſconſtrued,' and that inferences may be made, 'unfavourable to her principles of religion, and mode of inſtructing her pupils —— two circumſtances which might be very prejudicial to her in her profeſſion as a preceptreſs.' But we do not entertain ſo ill an opinion of any of our readers, as to ſuppoſe that they would miſconſtrue incidental objections, not affecting the general merit of a work, into a condemnation of the whole, or, from ſuch remarks, draw concluſions adverſe to the reputation of the writer.

The gentleman who has written to us from Glaſgow will find, in the preſent number, a review of the work which he mentions.

APPENDIX

TO THE

TWENTY-SECOND VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Lebens-beſchreibungen berühmter Männer aus den Zeiten der Wiederherſtellung der Wiſſenſchaften. Von C. Meiners. Zürich. 1797.

Lives of illuſtrious Men at the Æra of the Reſtoration of Knowledge. By C. Meiners, Privy Counſellor to the King of Great-Britain. 3 *Vols.* 8*vo.* Imported by Eſcher.

THE æra of the reſtoration of learning, and of the reformation of religion, may juſtly claim the particular attention of every one who is a lover of literature, or who has a wiſh to extend the knowledge of the goſpel. Few ſtudious perſons entirely neglect this period; but they are contented with ſome general remarks: the reduction of Conſtantinople by the Turks, and conſequent emigration of learned Greeks, are ſufficient grounds with them for the eſtabliſhment of literature in the weſtern part of Europe; and the wit of Eraſmus, the fire of Luther, and the cruelties of Henry VIII. are ſatisfactory motives for the reformation of religion. But the philoſophical hiſtorian will not be contented with theſe groſs ideas: he will inquire more deeply into the manners of the times, and of the ages which preceded ſo great a revolution in the ſentiments of various nations. He will then not be ſo much ſurpriſed that this revolution took place at the time alluded to, as that its effects ſhould have been ſo limited, and

that, in Germany, Great-Britain, and other countries, a geographical line is the limit between very different opinions. Perhaps there is nothing which ſo ſtrongly ſhows the little uſe made of reaſon by mankind, as this ſingle circumſtance: from one village of Germany, in which you find none but Calviniſts, you paſs into another which has none but Catholic inhabitants, and thence into another which has none but Lutherans; the devotees of each party deteſting the religious opinions of the others, and having perhaps no better ground for their faith, than the treaty which eſtabliſhed, two centuries ago, the religion of their reſpective diſtricts.

The lives here recorded are not thoſe of the greateſt men who ſhone in this important revolution: but the perſons ſelected had a conſiderable influence upon it, and were connected with its principal events. In the firſt volume, are given the lives of John of Ravenna, Reuchlin, and Cornelius Agrippa. The ſecond volume contains the lives of Picus of Mirandula, Angelus Politianus, and Ambroſius Traverſarius, or Frate Ambruogio degli Agnoli; and alſo an eſſay on the merits of the early promoters of literature in Germany, particularly of Rudolph Agricola, and Herman von dem Buſche. The laſt volume is dedicated entirely to Ulrich von Hutten.

Three large volumes, thus filled, will not, we imagine, excite very great curioſity in the Engliſh reader; and the manner in which the merits of the different individuals are diſcuſſed, will not bear a compariſon with the compoſitions of a Tenhove or a Roſcoe. But, though the German biographer may be thought to fail in elegance of ſtyle, he amply compenſates the defect by laborious inveſtigation; and, as far as the knowledge of ſome events is deſirable, reliance may be placed on this writer for the accuracy of his reſearches. Indeed he ſeems to have dwelt longer than was neceſſary upon ſome topics, from a laudable deſire of bringing forward his countrymen, particularly Ulrich, to public notice; and, if we are leſs intereſted in his patriotic exertions, Germany contains readers, to whom all the minutiæ relative to that eccentric character will be pleaſing.

John of Ravenna intereſts us from the friendſhip which Petrarch entertained for him, though he quitted the houſe of his patron to ramble in queſt of learning, like a knight-errant in ſearch of adventures. Several letters of Petrarch are introduced on the ſubject of the departure of the young man; and our author enters into a tedious inquiry reſpecting the motives of the ſeparation. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that John was a lad, that Petrarch was old, that the youth was weary of a quiet houſe, and that the Muſes, whom Petrarch courted, did not ſuit one who wiſhed to know, by experience, the manners of the world.

The chief particular which diſtinguiſhes Reuchlin, is his conteſt with the divines of Cologne, in which he rendered eſſential ſervice to the reformation. The whole of this controverſy, which aroſe from the converſion of the Jew Pfefferkorn, is circumſtantially given; and references are regularly made to the beſt authorities of thoſe times, among which the Epiſtolæ obſcurorum Virorum have a conſpicuous place. To ſhow how minutely accurate the writer is, we need only tranſcribe three lines out of as many pages, filled nearly in the ſame manner with the names of Reuchlin's friends.

'In Straſburg, and other cities of Alſace, were Nicolaüs Gerbelius Brant, Winſpheling, Jacob Spiegel, Kircher, Sapidus, Wolfgang Angſt, Jacob Sturm, Lucas Barodius, and Johannes Ruſerus.'

The life of Agrippa gives our author an opportunity of ſhowing his extenſive reading in works concerning the black art, and of deſcribing the manners of an age, in which the belief of witchcraft and magic was not, as with us, confined to diſtant villages, but reigned triumphant in the courts of princes. But Agrippa had merit as a ſcholar; and his work on the Vanity of Learning proves him to have been a man of a capacious mind. Upon this work M. Meiners dilates too copiouſly; and he introduces remarks, which ſome may deem hoſtile to freedom of ſentiment, though others may view them in a different light.

'It ſhows great toleration,' (he ſays) 'that Agrippa, for his chapter on the heads of the church, was not burned; at a time, indeed, when every reflection on the heads of the church muſt have been as dangerous, as any remarks at preſent on the governors of the ſtate.'

In Germany, however, the fairs of Leipſic and Frankfort would render the attempts of an attorney-general to ſuppreſs a pamphlet ineffectual.

'From the patronage,' (he ſays in another place) 'which the moſt famous poets and friends of literature beſtowed on the reformation, learning was for a long time, in the ſixteenth century, as liable to ſuſpicion as philoſophy now is, becauſe the promoters of the revolution in France named as their heads ſeveral great philoſophers, or at leaſt ſuch perſons as were by others eſteemed philoſophers.'

As the magical writings of Agrippa have been well ſtudied by our author, the whole of the ſyſtem is explained in a very clear manner. From ſeveral paſſages we learn, that

'Agrippa ſearched for knowledge with the utmoſt induſtry

in every quarter, among the cabaliſts, as well as the new Platoniſts — among the Arabians as well as the magical ſcholaſtics of the middle ages. Though he reſembled moſt of his magical brethren in pretending to know and regulate things which he neither knew nor could regulate, yet he differs from them at leaſt in the arrangement and clearneſs of his propoſitions, and ſtill more in the art of rendering acceptable the moſt incredible wonders, either by examples drawn from the ſcriptures, or by probable analogies derived from common experience. The whole world is changed by him into fairy land — all the laws of nature are in an inſtant arreſted or perverted — every creature is the focus or inſtrument of wonderful powers and actions. The earth is every thing by the influence of heaven and heavenly bodies; and all the heavenly bodies and ſpirits muſt in return obey the magician and the ſorcerer. Notwithſtanding theſe abſurdities, the work of Agrippa received the applauſes of men moſt eminent for their learning in all parts of Europe; and this is a proof how ſmall at that time were the beginnings of true knowledge, and of an accurate inſight into nature and man.'

We agree with the biographer, that Agrippa, as a teacher and a writer, has done more harm than good to mankind. The errors, which he blamed in others, had been long attacked; and thoſe which he countenanced and promoted were more dangerous. 'The ſecret ſocieties which he eſtabliſhed in France, Italy, England, and Germany, were the firſt of that kind which had been formed by a man of letters; and they were, without doubt, the origin of all thoſe which have exiſted in later times.' To him, therefore, we are indebted for our Caglioſtros, our illuminati, and perhaps for the dreams of Swedenborg.

The life of Picus of Mirandula is diſtinguiſhed by the extraordinary virtues and extenſive learning of this prince, and by the nine hundred propoſitions which he offered to defend in public, and for the diſcuſſion of which he invited diſputants from all parts of the world, whoſe expenſes in repairing to Rome he himſelf was willing to defray.

'If, in our times, (it is remarked) a young prince on his travels, or a young man of letters, ſhould offer, in one of the capitals of Europe, to diſpute publicly on many hundred propoſitions in various languages and ſciences, ſuch a champion would be conſidered as either a madman or a fool, who ſought for honour in points from which true glory could not be acquired. In the time of Picus, though the learning of the old ſchool was upon the decline, men thought otherwiſe. The greateſt knowledge of ancient languages, and of authors of ſcholaſtic theology or philoſophy, was not ſo favourably re-

ceived, as an extraordinary degree of ſkill in the art of the ancient ſophiſts to ſpeak extemporaneouſly on all ſubjects, to defend and contend for every thing. In the latter half of the fifteenth century, and the former diviſion of the ſixteenth, aroſe men in every part of Europe, who gave themſelves out, like the ancient ſophiſts, for perſons of univerſal ſcience, and who directed their ſteps chiefly to Italy, to diſplay, in the principal cities and the moſt eminent ſchools of that country, their learning, their eloquence, and their invincible talent in diſputation. In Italy ſuch men were eſteemed as gods; and, in theſe circumſtances, nothing was more natural or more pardonable, than that a young and ambitious man, who wiſhed for diſtinction among his learned contemporaries, ſhould conceive the plan of laying down an extraordinary number of propoſitions, ſelected from all ages, ſciences, and languages, for diſputation. Theſe theſes muſt convince every one, that the propoſer was not only deeply ſkilled in ſchool philoſophy and theology, but alſo in mathematics, in the cabaliſtic art, in magic, and in other ſciences of ancient nations; not only, that he was maſter of the Greek, Latin, and Pariſian ſchool languages, but was verſed alſo in thoſe of the Eaſt. So extenſive a knowledge as this, none of the men, whom Picus emulated, had hitherto attained.'

Amidſt ſuch a number of propoſitions, it would be very extraordinary, if all could in theſe times be maintained, or could in thoſe times eſcape the ſuſpicion of hereſy: but Picus was a true ſon of the church, and had a ſalvo, which might be a ſufficient ſcreen to him in the moſt heterodox opinions. 'In all,' ſays he, 'I lay down nothing for certain or probable, but as far as the holy catholic church deems it true or probable, and as it is in the opinion of its worthy head the pontiff Innocent the VIIIth, to whoſe judgment, he, who doth not ſubmit his own, has no judgment at all.' We ſee the folly of thoſe times, and laugh at ancient manners; but where is the country or ſect in which a ſimilar confidence in the opinions of others is not exacted or recommended? The diſputation never took place; but, as was natural, the ſubjects gave occaſion for a variety of diſcuſſions; and his holineſs thought himſelf bound to interfere. This pontiff, who was a great believer in witchcraft, and who ſent the firſt judges of that ſuppoſed crime into Germany, ſilenced the prince; who, not entirely juſtifying himſelf till the reign of his ſucceſſor, continued by his writings to increaſe his fame. From this time, he dedicated himſelf chiefly to theology, and to an aſcetic life. Of his theology we may form a judgment from the following extract.

'There are undoubtedly,' ſays Picus, 'three different

worlds — the corporeal, the heavenly, and the ſuper-celeſtial or intellectual, or, as the theologiſts ſay, the angelical world. Theſe three worlds make one complete world; not only becauſe they have one creator and end, but becauſe there is nothing in any one of theſe worlds, which is not to be found in the others; with this difference, indeed, that what is in the inferior is more perfect in the ſuperior worlds. Thus, the elemental warmth in our world is, in the heavenly, a warming faculty, and, in the intellectual, a mere idea of warmth. In our world is merely elemental fire; in the heavenly is the ſun; above the heavenly is the ſeraphical fire, or pure intellect. How different are the fires of theſe three worlds! The elemental fire burns, the heavenly enlivens, the ſuper-celeſtial enraptures. There is water on earth; and there is water in heaven, namely, the moon, the mover and governor of the earthly water. There is, laſtly, water above the heaven — I mean ſeraphical ſpirits. Here, alſo, we ſee the difference of theſe objects in different worlds. The earthly water oppreſſes vital heat; the heavenly nouriſhes it; the ſuper-celeſtial proves it. In the firſt world is God, the firſt unity, which ſtands above the nine hoſts of angels, and, though immovable, moves every thing towards itſelf. In the middle world is the empyræum, which leads the nine heavenly ſpheres, as a general leads his army, and is itſelf immovable, whilſt all other bodies are inceſſantly revolving round it. In the elementary world we remark, beſides the firſt matter, nine ſpheres or orbits of changeable things. Three of them are lifeleſs; and theſe are elements: the perfect bodies are formed out of theſe elements, and then ſuch as are imperfect. Three others have life; trees, ſhrubs, and plants. The three laſt have feeling or ſenſation, either imperfectly, as the zoophytes; others indeed perfectly, but ſtill within the limits of unreaſoning ſouls; the laſt having a feeling like human reaſon, which is capable of human inſtruction and knowledge.'

Man is alſo a world by himſelf; and all theſe effuſions of fancy receive ſupport, according to Picus, from ſcripture. But why ſhould we expect much judgment from a man who was a devourer of books, and took nothing amiſs which came in his way? The writings of Plato, or the works of Scotus and Albert — the orations of Demoſthenes, or the riddles of the Thalmudiſts — all were equal food to his inſatiable appetite. His different writings are well appreciated by our author, to whom great praiſe is due, for having with ſuch unwearied patience waded through whatever could throw any light on the character or ſentiments of this literary hero.

Politian was patroniſed by Lorenzo de' Medici, and cloſed the eyes of his dying friend. His zeal for the explanation of

ancient authors, and for the general promotion of learning, may cover his vanity, as well as other faults which his enemies have aſſociated with his character. His failings, as well as his merits, are accurately inveſtigated; and ſome ſpecimens of his vanity are exhibited in his letters to the king of Hungary, which the limits of our plan do not permit us to extract. Every lover of Greek literature is particularly intereſted in the life of Politian; and, in a parallel between him and the firſt Greek ſcholar now living, the difference in the character of the preſent and the ſixteenth century might be ſtrikingly elucidated.

Ambroſius is little known; and his monaſtic diſputes are no longer intereſting: but the pains which he took in collecting, copying, and collating manuſcripts, give him a diſtinguiſhed place in the republic of letters; and M. Meiners makes this part of his work more intereſting by dilating on the merits of thoſe men, who, in theſe occupations, which are now ſcarcely the objects of any attention, laid the foundations of all our literature. We, who ſee books daily multiplying around us, have an inadequate idea of the ſtate of a man of letters, whoſe whole property could not purchaſe the book which he wanted. A good hand in copying was a material circumſtance to every one who wiſhed to increaſe his library. Even pens and ink, we are informed, were ſo valuable, that Ambroſius, on ſending a bundle of pens to his brother at Venice, deſired him to preſent one to his friend Niccoli; and a bottle of ink was not then to be purchaſed in every country-town.

The concluding part of the ſecond volume contains a very intereſting account of the firſt promoters of ſtudy and literature in the north of Germany. Among thoſe who intereſted themſelves in the introduction of the learned languages into that country, and the eſtabliſhment of ſchools for the inſtruction of the laity, Agricola and Herman von dem Buſche are deſervedly entitled to the greateſt praiſe. At this moment Germany feels the benefit of their exertions. The numerous ſchools in that country have diffuſed among all ranks a greater portion of knowledge than is to be found in other parts; but the prevalence of bad forms of government, the diviſion of the community into nobles and ignobles, and the number of ſmall principalities, prevent the empire from enjoying the full effect of ſuch ſuperior advantages in education.

But Ulrich von Hutten is our author's hero. He is repreſented as the defender of the liberty of Germany, the deliverer of his country, without whom Reuchlin could not have triumphed over the mendicants, nor Luther over the court of Rome. Every circumſtance in the life of this remarkable man is inveſtigated with diligence; and ſome particulars are

detailed with prolixity, which, in the opinion of many, do not place the hero's character in the beſt point of view. The generality of readers will, perhaps, be beſt pleaſed with the reſearches concerning the *Epiſtolæ obſcurorum Virorum*, which M. Meiners ſeems to have eſtabliſhed on good grounds as the joint work of Ulrich and Crotus Rubianus, alias John Jæger, of Dornheim in Theuringen. The productions of each, according to our author, may eaſily be diſtinguiſhed. Wherever we are ſtruck with the 'peculiar levity, rapidity, and force of the ſtyle—with a certain ſoldier-like boldneſs and unclerical humour, in obſcene jeſts and pictures, and comical repreſentations of ſaints, reliques, &c.—with no ſmall degree of keenneſs in the relation of laughable anecdotes,—with a knowledge of Italy, to be obtained only by experience,—with a pleaſant explanation and derivation of words in the ſtyle of the monkiſh ſchools;—in all theſe places, the hand of our hero may be traced.' Theſe paſſages, with a few traits of his life, his bravery in ſeveral rencontres, his manly conduct when his couſin was murdered by the duke of Wirtemberg, and his pitiful complaints of his ſufferings under the venereal diſeaſe, diſplay the inconſiſtency of his character. He cultivated letters; he amuſed himſelf with the follies and ignorance of the prieſts; he expoſed them both in Latin and his own language; and thus was uſeful to the reformation, by employing his powers of ridicule, where reaſoning could not avail. While Eraſmus, in a more poliſhed manner, was undermining the influence of Rome in every court of Europe, Ulrich, by his poetry, which was ſuited to German boors, and to the nobles, moſt of whom were in their manners little ſuperior to boors, made the frippery of Rome the jeſt of every village. He was himſelf a nobleman, according to the German ſtyle; and the nobles in Germany are more numerous than, though not ſo reſpectable as, the provincial eſquires of England. At one time he heſitated, whether he ſhould retire from the ſtation which he held in the ſervice of a prince, and employ himſelf entirely in literature; but, in an epiſtle to his friend Pirkheimer, he intimates his intention of continuing, though not for life, in the precincts of a court. 'You ſee,' ſays he, 'that I have this year produced ſeveral ſmall works; and I hope that in future I may produce ſtill more, when I ſhall be accuſtomed to the buſtle of a court; from which, however, I can eaſily withdraw myſelf. I owe it to myſelf, to my family, and particularly to ſcience, not to trouble myſelf too long with active life. It is not ſufficient for me to ſhine with the merits and honours of my anceſtors. I deſpiſe nobility ariſing from the chance of birth, when it is not ſupported by perſonal merit. I will, as far as poſſible, be noble by my own deſerts, and leave to moy pſterity more than I derived from my

anceſtors.' Being adviſed to live on his eſtate, he thus replies to his friend:

'Shall I then live entirely on my eſtate? No life is ſo reſtleſs and fatiguing as ours upon our lands; and you greatly miſconceive our ſituation, if you think that we poſſeſs in our caſtles that repoſe and ſecurity which you enjoy in your noble metropolis. The ruſtics, from whom we derive our ſuſtenance, are extremely poor: what we procure from them is very little; and for that little we are under perpetual anxiety. We muſt, beſides, put ourſelves under the protection of ſome prince; and then it may happen, that, if I leave my place for a ſhort time, I may fall into the hands of thoſe with whom my chieftain is at variance. To prevent ſuch an accident, we keep at a great expenſe a large houſehold and many horſes. We cannot go two ſteps from our manſions, without being armed from head to foot. Thus haraſſed, we viſit our neighbours, we hunt, or we fiſh. Every day ſome diſputes occur between our own and the neighbouring boors, which we muſt determine. Whether we give way a little, or ſtand too ſeverely upon our rights, ſimilar or greater complaints ariſe. This is the repoſe, theſe are the enjoyments, of rural life. Even our manſions are leſs built for enjoyment, than for ſafety. Stables and barns occupy the greateſt ſpace. Every where is the naſty ſmell of dirt; and we are incommoded with the effluvia of ſtalls or dunghills. Inceſſantly are our ears tormented with the bleating of ſheep, the barking of dogs, the bellowing of oxen, and (on my eſtate, which borders on immenſe foreſts) with the howling of wolves. Thus every day brings with it peculiar trouble and ſorrow, beſides peculiar reſtleſsneſs from the perpetual flux and reflux of comers and goers, among whom not a few are robbers and murderers. Yet, into ſuch a den of thieves would you ſtuff me for all my days.'

This deſcription of a country life in the days of chivalry differs widely from modern pictures.

About this time, Ulrich recovered from his venereal complaint, which had tormented him for about eight years; and his biographer gives an account of it with the ſame exactneſs as if he were a member of the college of phyſicians, deſcribing a caſe for the conſideration of his brethren. From this time he was fully employed in his ſatirical writings, from which copious extracts are given; but the moſt material are his verſes in the vulgar tongue, entitled a 'Complaint of the immoderate and unchriſtian Power of the Pope at Rome, and the unclerical Clergy' (*ungeiſtlichen geiſtlichen*, the unſpiritual ſpirituals). In this poem, the ſtyle of which reſembles that

of the ballad of Chevy-Chaſe, monks, prieſts, biſhops, and popes, are treated with little ceremony. The negotiators in the convention at Raſtadt will probably uſe his words in the approaching ſeculariſation of the eccleſiaſtical ſtates. 'Germany cannot be free and happy, unleſs the chains of popiſh tyranny be broken, the prieſts kept to their proper duty, the immoderate revenues of the biſhops and monks, as well as the dead capital of the churches, turned to uſeful purpoſes, and all the clerical orders entirely ſwept away.'

The reformer was not content with mere writing: he conſidered the power of the pope and his dependents as a tyranny which ought to be reſiſted by the ſword; and he endeavoured to incite the nobility to join againſt what he called the uſeleſs orders. Luther oppoſed his friend's plan of calling in the ſword to the aid of the goſpel, but in vain; for Ulrich, with Francis of Sichingen, made ſome hoſtile incurſions, and raiſed contributions on the convents of the enemy. But Sichingen ſoon met with a warrior's death, and Ulrich retired to Baſil: but his friend Eraſmus, fearful of the papiſts, refuſed to receive his viſits; and, in a ſhort time, a hint was given him to withdraw from the city. Thence he went to Zurich, and died ſoon after (in Auguſt, 1523), on an iſland in the lake of Zurich.

Our readers, we preſume, will not vindicate the falſe heroiſm of Ulrich; much leſs will they prefer it to the ſpirit of Luther. Our author draws a compariſon between theſe reformers, and ſhows, with great judgment, in what each excelled, and what allowances may be made for each from the temper of the times. His concluſions on the nature of revolutions abound with good ſenſe; but, alas!

'I am perſuaded (ſays he), that the revolutions which have occurred will be no warning to poſterity, nor prevent hereafter a ſingle revolution. Good and wiſe governors, and their confidential counſellors, never wait till abuſes become ſo great as to excite loud clamours among all claſſes of people, eſpecially among thoſe whoſe knowledge, talents, and ſentiments, men are inclined to honour. On the contrary, ignorant, unpatriotic, and obſtinate poſſeſſors of power, like the courtiers of Leo the Tenth and Louis the Sixteenth, would always think, that the complaints of the diſcontented are of no conſequence; but, when they can no longer indulge ſuch an opinion, they will endeavour to ſilence the complainers, now not to be ſubdued. Unavoidable are revolutions at that period, when abuſes, and the advantages derived from abuſes, are ſo great, and the perſons profiting by theſe advantages ſo numerous, that no one, according to the courſe of nature, can expect, that ſo many ſelf-intereſted men ſhould reſign benefits which they

have obtained from misunderstood or usurped rights. Thus it was at the time of the reformation. If a real Christian head like Hadrian, the successor of Leo the Tenth, had resolved to hear and remove the complaints of the nations, such a pope soon found, that the rest of the clergy would never agree to the correction of abuses, by which the discontent of the people might be appeased. The Romanists, lost to religion, and profligate in their morals, would, as Ulrich justly remarked, have offered up with the greatest readiness all their creeds, and have received the new gospel of Luther, if, with these offerings and this exchange of sentiments, they could have retained their former government, their annates, their palls, their indulgences, and their profitable trumpery. These last abuses, for such men as had either introduced or enjoyed them, were too advantageous to be removed by any other means than actual force.'

From the extracts which we have given, and the incidental remarks interspersed, our readers will not be at a loss for our opinion of this work. As a specimen of indefatigable industry, it deserves high praise; as a model of taste, we cannot recommend it. To all who wish for a more complete insight into the reformation on the continent, it will be particularly useful; and the more so, as in no other work will be found such correct lists of the writings of all the persons whose lives are published in these volumes. As it is, we understand, the intention of certain persons to publish a new and general biographical dictionary, the work before us will very much assist them in their labours; and, after the corrections which we may expect from the good taste of the editors, we may conclude that it will be more pleasing in the English than in the original language.

Nouveau Voyage autour du Monde, en Asie, en Amérique, et en Afrique, en 1788, 1789, *et* 1790; *précédé d'un Voyage en Italie et en Sicile, en* 1787; *avec un Recueil de tout ce que les Voyageurs ont publié de plus curieux sur toutes les Parties du Globe, excepté l'Europe, sur leurs Arts, leurs Sciences, leurs Productions Commerciales et Naturelles, leurs Mœurs et leurs Usages; ainsi que l'Histoire de leurs Gouvernemens anciens et modernes. Par F. Pagès.* Paris.

A New Voyage round the World, in 1788—90; *preceded by a Tour into Italy and Sicily; with a Selection of the most curious Remarks of Travellers relative to the Arts, Sciences, &c. of all Parts of the Globe, except Europe. 3 Vols. 8vo.* 18*s. sewed.* Imported by De Boffe. 1797.

MANY of our readers have probably heard of the pretend d voyage of Gemelli Carreri round the world. The ac-

counts of that writer were long conſidered as the produce of actual obſervation; but it was at length diſcovered that he had borrowed information from others, and was a compiler rather than a traveller. In the work which is now before us, M. Pagès appears to have, in a great meaſure, followed the ſame plan: but, as we may fairly conclude, that he was ſtudious of the acquiſition of accurate intelligence, his work claims ſome attention.

The account of Geneva, with which the work commences, is in ſome reſpects ſuperſeded by occurrences ſubſequent to the year 1787, to which time the ſketch relates. The ſame remark may be extended to many of the Italian ſtates which are here mentioned.

In the deſcription of Sicily, the writer is guilty of a ſtrange omiſſion with regard to Meſſina. He ſpeaks of this city after the earthquake of 1783, as if no ſuch accident had happened, though the effects of it were very injurious in that town and neighbourhood.

In entering upon the tour of the world, he directs his courſe from Marſeilles to the Levant. He briefly deſcribes the iſle of Cyprus, and quickly leads us into Egypt. Paſſing over his ſuperficial account of this territory, we proceed with him, by a retrograde motion, to Greece. After giving a ſketch of the ancient governments of Sparta and Athens, and alſo (without due connection) of the Carthaginian polity, he thus mentions the preſent remains of the chief towns of the two former ſtates.

'The few veſtiges of the city of Sparta ſtill ſubſiſting, are chiefly broken columns, with their ſcattered cornices and capitals. The form of the theatre is yet diſcernible, as well as that of the circus. The theatre meaſured 250 paces in the wideſt part; its walls were compoſed of beautiful hewn ſtone, and its ſteps were of marble. Before it are many fragments of pillars and pieces of brick, ſaid to be the reliques of the tomb of Pauſanias.

'Some traces of ancient Athens are ſtill viſible; and the few ruins which appear are at once teſtimonials of its former glory, and proofs of the barbariſm of its conquerors. The ſituation of the modern town is the ſame with that of the old city, except that it occupies a much ſmaller ſpace. The citadel ſtands upon a craggy rock; and, ſome years ago, the aſcent to it was by three ſuperb porticoes, on which were groupes of figures in baſſo-relievo: theſe, without doubt, were the admired veſtibules which coſt above 20,000 talents.—Of the theatre of Bacchus, near the walls of the citadel, there are ſome remains; but the Lantern of Demoſthenes and the Tower of the Winds are more beautiful, as well as in better

preſervation.—Near the Eleuſinian gate are the ruins of a veſtibule which belonged to the temple of Jupiter Olympius; and, at a ſmall diſtance, is a portico of the temple of Theſeus, adorned with maſterly ſculptures, which the lapſe of time has little injured.'

The account of Turkey is not ill written; but it contains ſome erroneous ſtatements. In the deſcription of Perſia, we have the following character of the inhabitants. 'They are, in general, well made, handſome, and naturally ſtrong; but their vigor is impaired by their propenſity to love and pleaſure. They have a quickneſs of comprehenſion, and an acuteneſs of intellect: they are affable, polite in their deportment, and apparently mild; but they are indolent, vain, ſelfiſh, and deceitful.'—It is added, that 'they are more prone to amorous indulgences than any other oriental nation, and more addicted to jealouſy;' but it does not appear that they are more ſenſual or more jealous than their Turkiſh neighbours.

In the ſurvey of India, it is affirmed, that the great Mogul has a revenue of about 1600 millions of livres, and that his military force conſiſts of 900,000 men. But, before the time to which the ſuppoſed tour is aſſigned, the Mogul had become a very poor and contemptible prince, and a mere cipher in that peninſula which his anceſtors had ruled.

In ſpeaking of the iſle of Sumatra, he repreſents it as larger than *England:* but he might have ſaid that it exceeds all *Great-Britain* in extent. He ſtates, that the king of Achem, in that iſland, maintains above 800 women in his ſeraglio, many of whom 'mount guard day and night' in the interior of the palace. The latter circumſtance is corroborated by the mention of a female guard (in the narrative of the late Britiſh embaſſy to China), as belonging to the chief prince of the neighbouring iſland of Java.

Of the very extenſive iſland of Borneo, the account is too brief; and the deſcription of Celebes is reprehenſible on the ſame ground. In the ſketch of the Philippine iſles, the death of Magellan is repreſented as the effect of the inhuman perfidy of the king of Zebu, who ordered him to be murdered at an entertainment: but, as writers vary conſiderably with regard to the place, the manner, and the authors of his death, this intimation ought to have been accompanied with expreſſions of doubt, inſtead of being given as if the circumſtance were an unqueſtionable fact.

The kingdom of Siam is deſcribed with apparent accuracy. That of Boutan being leſs known, the account here given is leſs deſerving of credit. Of the inhabitants of theſe and other Aſiatic regions, M. Pagès obſerves, that, 'though nature has laviſhed her treaſures upon them, and though there are ſome

inſtitutions and uſages among them which we ſhould do well to imitate, they are greatly inferior to the nations that have produced a Newton, a Leibnitz, a Monteſquieu, a Buffon, a Rouſſeau, and a Fenelon. It is by the cultivation of the arts and ſciences, that ſome communities are diſtinguiſhed from, and rendered ſuperior to, others. How great is the difference, in point of knowledge and attainment, between theſe nations and thoſe of Europe; between their aſtrology and true aſtronomy, their calculations and thoſe of our mathematicians, their artillery and ours!'

We ſhall paſs over his account of China, as it contains nothing which can correct or improve our late intelligence reſpecting that empire. From the Japaneſe iſlands he conducts us into Tartary; but he does not add to our knowledge of that part of the world. From the northern parts of Europe, he ſteers to the weſtward, and examines the regions of America. We are ſurpriſed to find him ſpeaking of Quebec as if it had ſtill belonged to his countrymen at the time of his ſuppoſed viſit. Other inadvertencies are alſo obſervable; but we may conſider his pleaſing view of the United States as making ſome compenſation.

After the mention of the moſt remarkable particulars which concern the Mexican provinces, the writer takes a tranſient glance at the Weſt-Indian iſlands. 'We have ſeen (he ſays) extenſive diſtricts covered with herds of ſlaves, and three-fourths of the whole number of inhabitants changed into beaſts of burthen for the ſervice of the other fourth. We have ſeen, notwithſtanding the imperious influence of climate, European manners tranſported into America. We have ſeen the inactive and haughty Spaniard purchaſing with gold a luxury which his indolence would have denied him; the Engliſhman, an enemy to repoſe and to conſtraint, appearing even more anxious for the extenſion of his commerce than for his liberty and his fame; the Frenchman, volatile, lively, adventurous, combining luxury with warlike as well as commercial enterpriſes. But we could not ſurvey theſe iſlands without a frequent recollection of the ſevere fate, almoſt amounting to extirpation, of their ancient poſſeſſors [for the original in this place ought to be *anciens poſſeſſeurs*, not *anciennes poſſeſſions*], the Caraibes, a famous race of Indians, and the mildeſt of men, though they have been repreſented as cannibals by their inhuman perſecutors.'

South-America occupies a very ſmall portion of the work: but many parts of Africa are copiouſly deſcribed. Of the great deſert to the north of Nigritia or Negro-land, the author thus ſpeaks. 'The tract formerly called the Libyan deſert is flat, ſandy, and barren. The caravans that traverſe it are obliged to explore their way by the compaſs. Many

perſons periſh on theſe occaſions for want of water: others are overwhelmed by the ſands. There is only one town in this territory; and its inhabitants are very poor. The produce of the tract conſiſts only of millet, dates, and a few olives. The people who are diſperſed about it are a mixture of Moors and Arabs. They are divided into tribes, each being governed by a chief, who is generally the moſt opulent individual of the tribe. Their villages are a mere aſſemblage of tents, forming a circle, the centre of which is occupied during the night by cattle. When theſe animals have conſumed all the paſturage of a canton, their owners repair to another diſtrict. The women and children are placed in panniers, upon camels: the tents and furniture are carried by oxen; and the men of the tribe, mounted upon horſes, conduct the troop. This erratic life has ſome attractions. It procures new neighbours and new accommodations, and opens new proſpects.'

The work concludes with general reflections adapted to the ſubject. The effects of the voyages of captain Cook, and the reſult of other expeditions, are inveſtigated; and various concluſions are drawn. The publication, upon the whole, has ſufficient merit to atone for errors and imperfections.

Tableau Speculatif de l'Europe, par M. Dumouriez.

Speculative Picture of Europe. Small 8vo. 4*s. Sewed,* Imported by De Boffe. 1798.

THE military, political, and literary talents of the delineator of this ſketch, combine to render him reſpectable, whatever may be thought of his integrity or the purity of his morals. His obſervations, therefore, on recent occurrences, and his ſpeculations on probable events, may be expected to involve good hints and ſagacious conjectures, though all his ſuggeſtions may not be equally judicious.

In his preliminary diſcourſe, he takes notice of the late campaign in Italy and Germany, and applauds the addreſs of Buonaparte in reſcuing himſelf from a ſituation of extreme danger, and intimidating, as well as alluring, the court of Vienna into a peace. After ſome remarks upon the treaty between the French and the emperor, he refers to the riſe of that revolutionary ſpirit which has produced ſuch wonderful effects.

'The tranquillity of a great part of Europe (he ſays) had for its baſis the treaty of Weſtphalia; but the treaty concluded at Vienna in 1756, by which the intereſts of the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon were united, deſtroyed that foundation of European ſecurity, ſubjected the French court to the political influence of its new ally, engaged it in expen-

ſive and calamitous wars, and, by a gradual train of conſequences, led to the French revolution. The tranquillity of the ſeas and the colonies of Europeans had for its baſis the treaty of Utrecht. But the revolt of the Americans, and the alliance which Louis XVI. formed with them, created a new independent nation, expanded in France the germ of revolution, and impaired commercial and colonial ſecurity.'

He agrees with us in the opinion which we have conſtantly maintained, that it was highly expedient for other powers to forbear all interference in the affairs of France, at the eruption of the revolutionary volcano.

'If foreign powers (he obſerves) had remained mere ſpectators of the revolution, it would only have operated, in a conſiderable degree, upon the French themſelves; its conſequences would have been very ſlow in their progreſs; its influence upon the reſt of Europe would have been ſcarcely perceptible, and could only have been mild and benignant, becauſe it would not have been accompanied with extravagance of opinions, with crimes, diſorders, or maſſacres.'

But it is now too late to urge ſuggeſtions of this kind.

The pamphlet conſiſts of fifteen chapters, which are devoted to the concerns of the ſame number of powers. Auſtria is the firſt in the catalogue, and France cloſes the liſt.

Though M. Dumouriez thinks that the emperor has greatly profited by the reſult of the war, he does not conſider that prince as in a ſtate of ſecurity. His 'natural enemies' are the Turks, Ruſſians, and Pruſſians; but his greateſt danger is on the ſide of Italy. The Venetians, though they may now 'regard him as their deliverer,' will ſoon be galled by his yoke, and will ſeek an opportunity of ſhaking it off; and, when ſuch an event ſhall have taken place, the ſpirit of inſurrection will extend itſelf into his hereditary dominions. It is poſſible, indeed, that he may, inſtead of loſing his new acquiſitions, add to them a more conſiderable part of Italy; but this chance is leſs probable than the former riſque.

With reſpect to the king of Pruſſia, it is ſuppoſed, that, in the approaching partition of Germany, an extenſive tract in the northern parts of the empire, including Hanover, will be aſſigned to him by the French, as a recompenſe for his ceſſion of territory on the left bank of the Rhine. This writer, however, expreſſes his hope, that the young monarch will not enter into ſuch an agreement with the republicans, or give way to any of their unjuſtifiable ſchemes; but that he will purſue a more manly and honourable courſe, and take arms without delay againſt an ambitious foe.

'If he ſhould adopt this reſolution, he may allay thoſe de-

mocratic agitations which threaten to convulse the empire; he will rally around him the northern potentates and the German princes; he may rescue England from peril: in short, he may save Europe, and preserve law, morals, and royalty, from violation or ruin. On the other hand, if he should not exert himself at this crisis, he will become a victim to the revolution, and will have been the promoter of his own ruin.'

The determination of the Prussian cabinet is yet uncertain; but the king may perhaps think, that peace and alliance with France will contribute more to his security than the assumption of arms.

Our author thus blames the conduct of the princes of the empire.

'The members of the Germanic body (he says) have ill coalesced, have ill concerted their operations, and have abandoned each other, when the general good appeared to be incompatible with private interest, well or ill understood.'

He remarks, prospectively, that

'the constitution of the empire, its ecclesiastical states, principalities, and free cities, will be annihilated by the peace of Rastadt, if the convention should take effect: the title of emperor will become an empty honour, and will even fall into disuse; and Germany will be divided into seven sovereignties. Perhaps, however' (he conjectures), 'the people will refuse to acquiesce in the system of partition. Threatened with a change of sovereigns without being consulted on the subject, they will prefer a state of democracy; and the means of succeeding in that pursuit are now so obvious, that a province may, almost instantaneously, be revolutionised.'

This politician had finished his chapter on the affairs of Switzerland, when new intelligence of the fate of that republic reached him. We shall only quote the addition which he then made.

'If Switzerland, by this sudden revolution, should contract a closer bond of union; if the utter extinction of her federality, always weak and ill-cemented, should be the consequence; if she should have the prudence and spirit not to suffer herself to be dismembered, or to be deprived of her independence; the mischief will not be very great. But it is more probable, that the French will retain more than a mere influence over the Swiss, and that the violent democratisation of the latter will accelerate the subjection of Germany to a similar fate, unless, by the success of a general war against the former, in which the harassed and plundered Swiss may bear a part, an universal peace shall be effected on terms consistent with justice and moderation.'

Under the head of Italy, the character of the people is well ſketched; and the general ſtate of the country, at the commencement of the French revolution, is properly noticed. In his view of the exiſting principalities and new democratic ſtates in that part of Europe, the author expreſſes his opinion, that the dukedom of Tuſcany is in a precarious ſtate; — that the territories of the king of Sardinia and the duke of Parma are alſo in great danger of being republicaniſed; — that, if peace ſhould be concluded at Raſtadt, the French will take an opportunity of dethroning the king of Naples; but that, if a general war ſhould be re-kindled, this prince may prove the deliverer of Italy; — that the Cis-Alpine republic would eagerly purſue ſchemes of ambitious encroachment on the neighbouring ſtates, if not checked by French jealouſy; — that, if the revolution beyond the Alps ſhould be completed, Genoa is likely to become the chief naval power in Italy; — and that Venice will not long continue in its preſent ſtate of dependence.

'The reſtleſs activity of democracy' (ſays M. Dumouriez) 'labours for the ſubverſion of all governments of an oppoſite complexion; and no one is more oppoſite to it than that of Turkey.' The grand ſignor, therefore, cannot expect to remain undiſturbed; and the inſurrections of his ſubjects will promote the aims of the republicans.

Of Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, our author ſays little, except that it is the intereſt of thoſe powers to oppoſe the torrent of democracy, by which they will otherwiſe be overwhelmed.

The chapter which relates to this country demands particular attention. 'No power' (ſays this writer) 'is more menaced by the ſpirit of democracy, none can more effectually or more calamitouſly feel the malignant influence of the French revolution, none can be more readily cruſhed or preſerved by the reſult of the convention of Raſtadt, than England.' While the nation, however, ſhall remain firm and united, we may defy the threats and the efforts of the enemy.

A compariſon is drawn between the rival nations.

'In this conteſt, the French have been found invincible by land, the Engliſh at ſea. The glory which the former have acquired is more brilliant than that which their antagoniſts have earned. The French have diſplayed more courage, the Engliſh more ſkill and ability. The French had every thing to create; the Engliſh had already an excellent marine. But, if the republicans had not been oppoſed by ſo many enemies, they would in a ſhort time have had a navy equal, and perhaps ſuperior, to that of the preſent maſters of the ſea.'

Some of the points here mentioned will probably be controverted by many of our readers.

On the ſubject of the invaſion of England, the remarks are intereſting.

'To treat this ſcheme as chimerical, would argue a want of prudence and caution. If the war ſhould again become general, the project is certainly impracticable: but, if the French have only the Engliſh for their enemies, they may accompliſh their purpoſe by perſeverance.

'There are two methods of attempting the propoſed deſcent. One is, to embark a complete army in mercantile ſhips, under the convoy of a numerous fleet of war; to force a paſſage to the coaſt of England, by repelling the hoſtile ſquadrons; to attack with the utmoſt vigour the troops that oppoſe the deſcent; and to defend the invading army by the guns of the ſhipping till maritime ſuccour ſhall no longer be neceſſary. The execution of this ſcheme is not phyſically impoſſible; but ſo great is the naval ſuperiority of the Engliſh, that the ſucceſs of ſuch an attempt is highly improbable. The other mode is, to equip a great number of barks, each of which may contain a hundred men and one piece of cannon; to croſs the channel under the eſcort of a few frigates, gun-boats, and bomb-veſſels; to land in ſome obſcure part, and immediately begin to form entrenchments. Ten thouſand men may thus be eaſily tranſported to England, with little danger of being intercepted by cruiſers. It may be ſaid in objection, that ſo ſmall a body will not be able to withſtand the numerous army which will quickly be aſſembled. The remark would be juſt, if the latter could pour at once upon the French before they had entrenched themſelves: but this ſpeedy and general attack cannot be expected to take place; and, when the invaders are entrenched, no impreſſion can be made upon them without the forms of a regular ſiege. A *corps* of no greater number, poſted in ſimilar entrenchments near the fort of Kehl, ſtopped for two months the progreſs of a numerous and victorious Auſtrian army, more accuſtomed to ſervice than the Engliſh, provided with expert engineers, excellent gunners, and a good train of artillery. The Engliſh, therefore, cannot reaſonably expect to force, by a *coup de main*, a poſt occupied by 10,000 experienced warriors, well ſupplied with the means of defence. When a ſiege of this kind ſhall have been undertaken, the ſlowneſs of the advances will diſguſt the inexperienced beſiegers, deſtitute as they will be of the direction of able generals, unfurniſhed with proper artillery or ſkilful engineers, and apprehenſive of deſcents upon many other parts of the coaſt, from which, under theſe circumſtances, the government will be afraid to withdraw the troops. The patriotiſm of the militia will then grow cool, expenſes will multiply, trade will be annihilated; and the ceſſation of payments, the number of

bankruptcies, the alarms of the manufacturers, the general conſternation of the inhabitants both of the towns and of the country, and, above all, the diſcontent of the people, and the deſire of a revolutionary change, will fill the realm with diſorder and confuſion. The Engliſh will then, even before a defeat, be conſtrained to purchaſe, at a high price, an humiliating peace, if indeed the French, who are not remarkable for moderation in proſperity, ſhould be willing to grant it.

'If we ſuppoſe a caſe the moſt favourable to England, that the French ſhould be repulſed at the firſt attempt, it ſurely will not be at the time of the deſcent; for all who have any knowledge of the affairs of war muſt know that it is impoſſible to prevent a deſcent: it will therefore be at the aſſault of the entrenched poſt, that the Engliſh will put their enemies to the ſword, or make them priſoners. But of what conſequence will the loſs of 10,000 men be to the French, particularly when their adverſaries will have loſt an equal number? The former will not, in this caſe, be diſcouraged from a ſpeedy renewal of their invaſive operations.

'From our view of this ſubject, we are juſtified in drawing the following concluſions.

'In the firſt place, a deſcent *en maſſe* in Great-Britain or in Ireland is pregnant with great inconvenience and extraordinary difficulty; but it is not abſolutely impoſſible. An army of 60 or 80,000 men, having effected a landing in England, may ſubſiſt in this country, without requiring ſupplies of proviſion by ſea. From the preſent diſpoſitions of the people of England, and the progreſs which democracy is now making throughout Europe, the invaders will find partiſans and reſources in a rich, abundant, and open country; and ſuch an army may march to London, ſubjugate the whole realm, and ſubvert the monarchical conſtitution.

'Secondly, partial deſcents are much more eaſy in the execution, and will have nearly the ſame effect.

'Thirdly, the mere threat of a grand invaſion keeps England in alarm, and contributes to the ruin of the nation by occaſioning an immenſe expenditure for the purpoſes of defence. The Engliſh cannot ſupport this ſtate of perplexity for ſo long a time as the French can continue the appearance of invaſive intentions.

'Fourthly, the French will not deſiſt from holding out this menacing proſpect, till a general war ſhall break out againſt them, which would employ in other ſchemes the troops deſtined for this purpoſe, or till an univerſal peace ſhall be adjuſted. The convention of Raſtadt will decide which part of this alternative ſhall take effect. The fate of England, therefore, entirely depends on the iſſue of the negotiations.'

This view of affairs may alarm many of our countrymen; while the confidence of others will not be ſhaken. We do not think that the reſult of the congreſs will be ſo deciſive in this reſpect as M. Dumouriez imagines. We are more ready to concur with him in his ideas of the intereſt which other powers ought to take in the ſuppoſed danger of Great-Britain, and of the effect which the ſucceſs of the French ſcheme of invaſion might have upon Europe in general. The paſſage may be thus tranſlated.

'It is the intereſt of the maritime powers, not only that the project of a deſcent ſhould be unſucceſsful, but that even the menace of it ſhould be diſcontinued. The other powers of the continent have equal reaſon to wiſh for the preſervation of the independence of Great-Britain. The univerſal bankruptcy which would follow the conqueſt of that iſland, the acquiſition of ſuch ſtores of wealth by a nation whoſe avidity is unreſtrained by ſcruple, the union of all power by ſea and land in one people, would elevate the ambition and extend the rapacity of the French beyond all bounds. The fall of all the thrones of Europe, and the annihilation of political, civil, and religious conſtitutions, would be the fatal reſult of ſuch ſucceſs. Democracy would devour this quarter of the globe, and would end by devouring itſelf.'

Proceeding to the concerns of Spain, M. Dumouriez points out the danger to which that monarchy is expoſed from the exorbitant power and republican zeal of the French. Portugal, he thinks, is ſecure from the attempts of the feeble Spaniards, and, for a time, from the efforts of their allies.

He commends the general conduct of the United States of America, and blames the French for their arrogant treatment of that republic; a treatment as impolitic as it is unjuſt.

The tyranny exerciſed by the French over Holland muſt be a ſource of warm reſentment to a nation not deſtitute of ſpirit: but it ſeems, at preſent, to be impracticable for the Dutch to reſcue themſelves from this ſtate of humiliating oppreſſion. Amidſt the evils, however, which they have ſuffered from the French revolution, they have a glimmering of hope in the extinction of that federal ſyſtem, which divided rather than united their ſeven provinces. 'The union of the commonwealth in one indiviſible national body' (ſays our author) 'is an immenſe advantage, which may lead to the deliverance of the Batavian people.'

France is conſidered in various points of view; but, as the former parts of the pamphlet neceſſarily involved the frequent mention of the affairs of that republic, little addition will now be requiſite.

'The French' (it is affirmed) 'are not only the dictators of the conditions of peace at Raſtadt, but have even previouſly executed ſome of the articles. By the ſeiſure of Mentz and other advantageous poſts, they have intimidated thoſe princes who might have been inclined to a reſumption of arms. The Germanic body is a dying patient, whoſe relatives are dividing the ſucceſſion with an alien robber, whom they have not the ſpirit or power to drive out of the houſe.'

This is not a forced compariſon, but an apt ſimile.

The interior ſtate of France is delineated with great warmth of colouring, but, as far as we can judge, with little deviation from truth; and the diſorders of the country are repreſented as the fruit of the reſtleſs diſpoſition, the falſe policy, the ambition and incapacity of the exiſting government, and, above all, of the ſuppoſed neceſſity of throwing other ſtates into the convulſions of democracy, that it may the more effectually ſupport itſelf.

Of the internal dangers of France, the greateſt, perhaps, is the diſorder of the finances; and this may prove the cauſe of a new revolution. The multiplicity of expenſes, the defective payment of the taxes, and the general miſmanagement of the revenue, render the receipts very inadequate to the public demands. The preparations for the invaſion of Great-Britain will greatly augment the embarraſſments which have thus ariſen; but, if that enterpriſe ſhould ſucceed, the conquered nation will be obliged to reimburſe the victors, though the ſpoils of this kingdom will not ſatiate Gallic avidity, or check the courſe of wild ambition and raſh prodigality. If, on the other hand, the ſcheme ſhould prove abortive, either from the unaſſiſted efforts of the Engliſh, or from a confederacy between them and other nations, France will loſe her power and predominance, and her tyrants will be expoſed to the rigours of national vengeance.

This pamphlet merits the attentive peruſal of politicians, in every country to which it relates. Though the author is a Frenchman, he ſeems to conſider himſelf, in his exile, as a citizen of the world, and his ſpeculations appear to be directed to general benefit.

Apologues et Contes Orientaux, &c. Par l'Auteur des Variétés Morales et Amuſantes. Amſterdam.

Oriental Fables and Tales. 8*vo.* Imported by De Boffe.

THE abbé Blanchet was one of thoſe literary men, who, from want of active employment, contrive to make a miſerable world for themſelves, and in ſome meaſure enjoy the miſery of their own creation. His ſingularities, humour,

and caprice, deſtroyed the effects of the zeal of his friends in his favour: but, however ingenious he might be in tormenting himſelf or others, the ſenſibility which occaſioned his imaginary diſtreſſes gave him that fineneſs of taſte, which eminently diſtinguiſhes this and other productions of his pen. Many of the tales have appeared already in different writings: ſome are tranſlated from our own language; and the tranſlations from Livy and Tacitus will gratify French and Latin ſcholars. We ſhall ſelect two tales, which, after due allowances for their appearance in an Engliſh garb, will ſuffice as ſpecimens of our author's talents.

'THE INSULTED DERVIS.

'The favourite of a ſultan threw a ſtone at a poor dervis, who was begging charity from him. The inſulted eccleſiaſtic did not dare to ſay a word: he took up the ſtone and kept it, with the reſolution of returning the compliment ſooner or later to this man of pride and cruelty. Some time after, the news came that the favourite was diſgraced, and that the ſultan's officers were leading him through the ſtreets on a camel, expoſed to the inſults of the populace. The dervis, hearing this, ran for his ſtone; but after a moment's reflection caſt it from him. "I now feel," ſays he, "that we muſt never avenge ourſelves. When our enemy is powerful, it is imprudence and folly: when he is unhappy, it is baſeneſs and cruelty."

'THE SILENT ACADEMY, OR THE EMBLEMS.

There was at Amadan a celebrated academy, whoſe firſt law was conceived in the following terms:—Let the academicians think much, write little, and ſpeak as little as poſſible. It was called the ſilent academy; and there was not a real man of ſcience in all Perſia, who was not anxious to be a member. Dr. Zeb, the author of an excellent little work entitled the Broom, learned at the extremity of his province, that there was a vacancy in the academy. He inſtantly repaired to Amadan, and preſenting himſelf at the door of the hall, where the academicians were aſſembled, requeſted the porter to give the preſident this note: 'Dr. Zeb humbly ſolicits the vacant place.' The porter diſcharged his commiſſion; but the doctor and his note came too late, for the vacancy was filled up.

'The academy was in the utmoſt diſtreſs at this misfortune. It had reluctantly received a courtier wit, whoſe lively and volatile eloquence was the admiration of the drawing-room; and it now ſaw itſelf obliged to refuſe Dr. Zeb, the ſcourge of babblers, a man of the deepeſt erudition

and ſoundeſt judgment. The preſident, charged to announce the diſagreeable news to the doctor, knew not how to undertake the office. After a ſhort rêverie, he ordered a large baſon to be ſo filled with water, that the addition of a ſingle drop would ſpill the liquor; then he gave a ſign for the introduction of the candidate, who made his appearance with that ſimple and modeſt air, which almoſt always announces true merit. The preſident roſe, and, without uttering a word, ſhowed him with marks of the deepeſt regret the emblematical baſon, the baſon ſo completely filled. The doctor ſaw clearly that there was no room for him in the academy; but, without loſing courage, he deviſed the means of ſhowing the academician, that a ſupernumerary member would occaſion no diſarrangement. Obſerving at his feet a roſe-leaf, he took it up, and placed it ſo delicately on the ſurface of the water, that not a ſingle drop eſcaped. This ingenious anſwer pleaſed the aſſembly; and Dr. Zeb was admitted a member by acclamation.

'The regiſter of the academy was then preſented to him; and, when he had, according to cuſtom, inſcribed his name, it remained only for him to pronounce his oration of thanks: but the doctor, like a true ſilent academician, returned theſe thanks without uttering a word. In the margin of the regiſter he ſet down the number 100, that of his new collegues; then putting a cipher before the number, he wrote, "this makes them neither more nor leſs (0100)." The preſident returned the compliment to the modeſt doctor, with as much politeneſs as preſence of mind. Placing a unit before the number, he wrote, "they are now worth ten times more (1100)."

Réflexions ſur la Perfectibilité de l'Homme, ſur la Souveraineté du Peuple, ſur la Liberté indéfinie, ſur l'Egalité parfaite, et ſur M. Necker. Traduit de l'Allemand de M. de Z———n.

Reflections on the Perfectibility of Man, the Sovereignty of the People, indefinite Liberty, perfect Equality, and M. Necker. Tranſlated into French from the German. 12mo. Imported by De Boffe. 1797.

FROM the ſtrange title of this little work, and the awkward introduction of a *perſon* among the *things* which are the ſubjects of conſideration, we expected to find the piece written in a looſe and deſultory manner; and our preconceived opinion has been fully confirmed. The performance is crude and indigeſted, and merits only a ſlight notice.

The author, referring to the ſuppoſed poſſibility of attaining ſuch perfection, that religion and law would no longer be neceſſary, denies that profeſſor Kant was the promulgator of that doctrine, and attributes it to the modern French philoſophers. 'It originated' (he ſays) 'in cunning, is ſupported by vanity and abſurdity, and is applied to intereſted purpoſes by aſpiring, rapacious, and wicked men.' It is undoubtedly a viſionary idea; but this remarker apparently miſunderſtands it. He aſks what we ſhould think of thoſe painters and ſculptors who ſhould imagine that they would attain perfection in their reſpective arts, by a diſuſe of the pencil and the chiſel; and he alleges, that it would be equally abſurd to throw aſide religion and law, which are the only guides to perfection. The meaning of the doctrine, however, is, that religion and law would not be requiſite as eſtabliſhments.

The idea of the ſovereignty of the people ſeems alſo to be miſconceived by the writer; and his ſentiments on this head are illibera and intolerant. He ſpeaks leſs unreaſonably when he condemns abſolute liberty; for it is certain that ſuch a ſtate would lead to exceſs and enormity.

While the body of the publication conſiſts of only thirty pages, more than one hundred are filled with notes. In one of theſe, M. Necker is vehemently abuſed, as an incapable and pernicious miniſter, and the chief promoter of the ruin of the French monarchy.

Des Emigrés Français; ou, Réponſe à M. de Lally-Tolendal; *par J. J. Leuliete.* Hamburg.

Remarks concerning the French Emigrants; *or, an Anſwer to M. de Lally-Tolendal* *. 12*mo.* Imported by De Boffe. 1797.

THIS writer, in entering upon his taſk, affects great delicacy and moderation, and affirms that he is ſolely actuated by public duty and patriotiſm. He is aware, he ſays, that many will ſtigmatiſe him as the apologiſt and defender of tyranny; that the praiſe of ſenſibility and humanity will be denied to him; and that many will rank him among thoſe infamous men who have ſullied by their crimes the glory of France.

He blames the emigrants, in the firſt inſtance, for having quitted their country at a time when the revolution wore the faireſt aſpect. Such fugitives, he thinks, could not have a

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* See p. 429 of this volume of our Review.

due regard for the general welfare of the nation which they deſerted. They fled when they were not in danger, or when the danger might eaſily have been obviated; and they ſtudiouſly impreſſed foreign ſtates with unfavourable opinions of the conduct of the prevailing party. 'Emigration prior to the 31ſt of May, 1793,' (ſays our author) 'was a deſertion of thoſe who were willing to ſave the ſtate, and who would, if they had not been left defenceleſs, have prevented the enormities which enſued.' But, when the reign of terror commenced, flight was a juſtifiable and neceſſary meaſure of ſelf-preſervation.

M. Leuliete draws examples from various governments, to vindicate the ſentence of exile, pronounced againſt the emigrants, from the imputation of peculiar ſeverity; and he adds, that not only ſound policy required ſuch a procedure, but that even humanity authoriſed it. 'To baniſh a perſon from a country that has undergone a great political change, adverſe to his taſte and his habits, and to thoſe prejudices which his bigotry will not ſuffer him to ſhake off, is, in fact, to promote his ſecurity and happineſs.' This argument, in our opinion, is little more cogent than that which might be uſed by a ſophiſt, who, to juſtify the murder of an unhappy individual, ſhould allege that it was an act of mercy to remove him from the world, as life had loſt all its charms for him.

He ſtigmatiſes, not without reaſon, the conduct of thoſe emigrants who re-entered their native country in arms, under the banners of a deſpotic coalition; and he takes an opportunity of reprobating the malice of the projectors of, as well as of the agents in, the expedition to Quiberon. He accuſes M. de Lally of being too ariſtocratical in his humanity, and of having little compaſſion for the unfortunate, if they belong to the inferior claſſes of ſociety. He alſo charges him with having manifeſted too little diſcrimination in his endeavours to ſerve his proſcribed countrymen; and, indeed, M. de Lally has not, in his Defence, made a proper diſtinction between the innocent and the criminal emigrants.

In diſcuſſing conſtitutional points, he paſſes from an eulogium upon the preſent conſtitution of France to animadverſions upon that of Great-Britain. He allows, however, that, notwithſtanding the defects of the latter, there are many important advantages which it involves; but, in ſtating theſe benefits, he condemns the mode in which the government is *now* adminiſtered.

Returning to the concerns of the emigrants, he contends, that to revoke their proſcription, and permit them to return in full ſafety, would be a dangerous conceſſion, to which no true friend of the republic would be inclined to agree. But

we do not ſee, in ſo ſtrong a light as this writer, the danger of an act of amneſty; and we are diſpoſed to reprobate the continuance of that perſecuting ſpirit which rejects the applications, and cruſhes the hopes, of unfortunate fugitives.

This compoſition is not deſtitute of merit; but it is declamatory rather than argumentative, and is not a ſatisfactory anſwer to the obſervations of M. de Lally.

Die Metaphyſik der Sitten, abgefaſſen von Immanuel Kant. Königſberg. 1797.

The Metaphyſics of Morals, by Immanuel Kant. 8*vo.* Imported by Eſcher.

THIS is an excellent *bonne bouche* for the metaphyſicians. When theſe refined inveſtigators have ſettled morality on metaphyſical grounds, they may, with equal advantage to the public, compoſe a treatiſe on the morals of metaphyſics; or, perhaps, ſuch is the excellence of the work before us, that the latter title would be as well adapted to it as the other. We here find morality diſcuſſed on the Kantean principles of pure reaſoning; that is, on the principles of changing eaſy for more difficult words, and of putting it out of the power of common readers to underſtand the connection between any two propoſitions. The metaphyſics are introduced by a preface on the ſcience of virtue, *die tugend lehre*; and this preface, which occupies more than a third part of the work, explains the origin of the idea of the ſcience of virtue, by telling us what is the idea of duty. This brings us to certain objects, which are duties; namely, the purſuit of our own perfection, and the promotion of the happineſs of others. Perfection is a fine metaphyſical word, and leads our author a very pretty dance into what he calls tranſcendental philoſophy and teleology. We do not think it neceſſary to follow him in his courſe; but we will take notice of his remarks upon virtue. 'Virtue' (he ſays) 'means a moral ſtrength in the will. But this does not expreſs the whole of the idea; for ſuch ſtrength might belong to a holy or ſuperhuman being, in whom no reſtraining inclination acts againſt the law of the will, and who does every thing willingly in obedience to law. Virtue is alſo the moral ſtrength of the will of a man in purſuit of his duty, which is a moral neceſſity through his own lawgiving reaſon, as far as it conſtitutes itſelf a power producing law.' We agree with the metaphyſician in making ſtrength one part of his idea of virtue; for, whether we refer to the Greek αρετη from Αρης, to the Latin *virtus* from *vir* or *vires*, or to the German *tugend*, whoſe original verb gave to us the word *doughty*, all make virtue to conſiſt in bodily ſtrength,

becauſe, in the origin of ſociety, that was of the greateſt importance to mankind. The ſignification of the word is now altered; and virtue is applied to morals or manners, which change with men, and climates, and times. Hence this ſpecious metaphyſical ſcience is reduced to a knowledge of the rules which various claſſes of ſociety have preſcribed for the conduct of individuals. But this will not ſatisfy our metaphyſician, who will indulge himſelf in various flights of abſtraction; though, if he would content himſelf with plain language and a few obvious deductions, he might amuſe thoſe whom he now bewilders. However, we would not wiſh any admirer of Kant to take our word, and reject the fine-ſpun notions of his metaphyſical maſter. Let him tranſlate this work into Engliſh; and if, having compared it with any of our common ſermons on the ſame ſubject, he ſhould be inclined to prefer it, we promiſe to give the original a ſecond peruſal, and, at the ſame time, to examine his tranſlation with accuracy and impartiality.

Manuel des Curieux et des Amateurs de l'Art, contenant une Notice abrégée des principaux Graveurs, et un Catalogue raiſonné de leurs meilleurs Ouvrages, depuis le Commencement de la Gravure juſques à nos Jours: les Artiſtes rangés par Ordre chronologique, et diviſés par Ecole. Par M. Huber et C. C. H. Roſt. Tomes I. II.

A Manual for curious Perſons and Lovers of Art; containing a ſhort Notice of the principal Engravers, and a critical Liſt of their beſt Works, from the Æra of the Invention of Engraving to our Times; the Artiſts being arranged in chronological Order, and claſſed in particular Schools. By Meſſieurs Huber and Roſt. Small 8vo. Eſcher. 1797.

IN the preface to this work, we are informed by M. Huber, that ſome of the booktellers of Zürich applied to his friend Roſt on the ſubject of a new edition of 'Fueſslin's Catalogue of Engravers,' which they wiſhed him to augment and improve. Not having ſufficient leiſure, however, to execute the taſk alone, he engaged M. Huber in the ſcheme. The latter undertook to prepare the greater part of the work, and to write it in French, which his aſſociate was to tranſlate into German.

In the introduction, the reader will find an expoſition of ſome of the principles of the art of painting, as far as they are applicable to engraving; remarks on the different ſpecies of engravings; a recommendation of the ſtudy of prints as both uſeful and agreeable; and hints of advice to the collectors of thoſe works of art.

The two volumes now before us are confined to the German ſchool. The firſt artiſt here mentioned is Martin Schoen, the earlieſt of the known chalcographers of Germany, though not the inventor (as ſome have ſuppoſed) of the art of engraving upon metal. His pieces are generally allowed to be ſuperior to thoſe of his Italian contemporaries. He is ſaid to have died in the year 1486.—Michael Wolgemut, like Schoen, was both a painter and an engraver; but it is doubtful whether any of his paintings remain.—Albert Durer was a pupil to Wolgemut; but he ſoon excelled his maſter. He conſiderably improved the art of engraving; and, if he had ſtudied at Rome, he might perhaps have equaled the greateſt Italian painters.—Kranach acquired reputation in the pictorial art; but he chiefly employed himſelf as an engraver in wood. His copper-plates do not pleaſe; but thoſe of Krug, who flouriſhed at the ſame time, are eſteemed.—Holbein, the painter, is here introduced as an eminent artiſt in the department of *xylography* (if we may be allowed to coin a word expreſſive of the art of engraving in wood).—Beham is mentioned as one of the beſt engravers of his time; and, after the enumeration of many intervening artiſts, Luke Kilian makes his appearance, with other eminent perſons of his family.—Of Major it is affirmed, that his merit was ill-recompenſed, and that he died 'in the greateſt miſery, a victim to the injuſtice of his age.'—The performances of Merian and his daughter are commended: as a naturaliſt, the latter is well known.—Hollar receives due praiſe; and his misfortunes are properly lamented.

Prince Rupert is uſually regarded by the Engliſh as the inventor of prints in *mezzo-tinto*; but it appears, that the honour of the invention is due to lieutenant-colonel von Siegen, who taught it to the prince.

'This ſpecies of art' (ſays M. Huber) 'has been ſo ſkilfully cultivated by the Engliſh, that it is ſcarcely poſſible to improve upon their exertions: it is therefore ſtyled, by way of diſtinction, *the Engliſh manner*.'

If Sedelmeyer had met with encouragement, he would have ſurpaſſed moſt of his contemporaries both as a deſigner and an engraver. Having made conſiderable progreſs in his favourite purſuits, he ſought to diſtinguiſh himſelf by ſome capital work. Copying ſeveral of the paintings of Gran in the imperial library at Vienna, he prepared a ſeries of engravings from them. When theſe pieces were preſented at court, the emperor was highly pleaſed with them; and he ſaid, 'What ſhall we give to this artiſt as a teſtimony of our approbation?' But, one of his miniſters remonſtrating againſt any act of liberality to a man who could enrich himſelf by the ſale of his productions, he neglected poor Sedelmeyer, whoſe diſappoint-

ment in his ſanguine hopes threw him into a ſtate of inſanity.

The pieces of Schmidt are very numerous; and many of them are greatly admired; particularly, his portrait of Mignard, engraven from a painting of Rigaud. Thoſe of Wille are alſo valuable.

Loutherbourg, whoſe pictures have frequently graced the exhibitions of our Royal Academy, has obtained a place in the work which we are reviewing, as a practiſer of etching. He has etched various pieces with taſte and accuracy. He was born at Straſbourg in the year 1730; and he now reſides in Switzerland.

Muller, one of the pupils of Wille, flouriſhes as an engraver at Stutgard.—Hauber, who alſo ſtudied under Wille, acquired fame at Paris in the reign of Louis XVI. but, the revolution having driven him from France, he has ſince employed himſelf in Germany in large publications of prints.—Bartſch, who is reſident at Vienna, is deemed a good deſigner and an expert engraver.—Schmitz was reſcued, by the diſcernment and liberality of Krahé the painter, from the humble ſituation of a baker; and he ſoon became an artiſt of reputation.—Lips was drawn from obſcurity by the celebrated Lavater; and he is now a laborious and ſkilful artiſt.—The liſt of the German ſchool cloſes with the names of Clerk and Leon, who, though very young men, are not undiſtinguiſhed among the engravers of Vienna.

This work appears to have been executed with great care and attention. It conſiderably ſurpaſſes, in extent, the catalogue on which it is founded; and it is alſo more accurate. The compilers, therefore, merit the thanks and encouragement of the admirers of the imitative arts.

Eſquiſſe d'un Plan d'Education. Par A. H. Dampmartin. Berlin.

Sketch of a Plan of Education. By A. H. Dampmartin. 8*vo.* Imported by Dulau.

UNDER the term *education* are given, in an eaſy and elegant manner, the author's thoughts on a variety of ſubjects. They are the reflections of a man who has ſeen much of the world, and who can well deſcribe the faults attending too great an intimacy with it, or the no leſs dangerous errors which accompany too great a neglect of it. He has the merit alſo of dedicating his talents to the ſervice of religion and morality, of deſpiſing the affected atheiſm or deiſm of our times, and of laying his foundations for happineſs in a ſtrict attention to virtue and the duties of ſocial life. In drawing characters, whether ancient or modern, he ſeems to us to have ſome ſkill.

We ſhall ſelect a few lines on the character of the Roman orator.

'Cicero, notwithſtanding his great genius, had very little influence during the troubles which convulſed his country. The honours laviſhed on him by the heads of parties were like the careſſes beſtowed on children of a high ſpirit. Affected compliments, and ſlight marks of outward reſpect, were baubles tending to make him forget the greatneſs of which he ſaw himſelf deſpoiled. Pompey, who had fallen from the title of great, praiſed his epigrams, but did not take his advice. Cæſar loved his *bon mots*, and admired his converſation, but laughed at his anger. Auguſtus flattered him as long as he thought that his paſſion might contribute to the diſgrace of Antony, but conſented to his deſtruction as ſoon as his intereſt preſcribed a political reconciliation with the latter. A long time before his death, this great man languiſhed in obſcurity. In the midſt of Rome, curbed by the authority of Cæſar, Cicero appears to us like one of the ancient temples which paganiſm raiſed in the days of its ſplendour to gods whoſe worſhip is annihilated. The hand of deſtruction is not reared againſt its walls; but incenſe no longer burns upon its altars, the vaulted roofs no longer echo with religious chants, reverential ſolitude reigns in the vaſt incloſure, and the traveller alone comes hither to gratify his ſoul with admiration and reſpect.'

The will of a ſoldier of fortune, who bequeathed his eſtate to a young man to whom he was ſcarcely known, is juſtified by the letter which accompanied it. 'You will be ſurpriſed, ſir, to find yourſelf ſuddenly maſter of the fortune of a man whoſe name alone is known to you, and who knows nothing more of you than that you are a worthy man. For the honour of my memory, I muſt give an account of my motives to you, to my friends, to my relatives, to my fellow-citizens.

'I was the younger ſon of a very ſevere father, who ſacrificed a numerous family to the aggrandiſement of our eldeſt brother. I was ſent very young to a public ſchool; but, being ſoon diſguſted at this abode of melancholy, I entered a volunteer in the noble regiment of Auvergne. The war gave me an opportunity of diſtinguiſhing myſelf. After one campaign the colonel gave me a lieutenancy; but a hundred *louis* were neceſſary for my accoutrements. In the hope of finding aſſiſtance in my own province, I requeſted leave of abſence. My father's houſe was ſhut againſt me. I ran to my relatives, to my uncles, to the fathers of thoſe who, ſince I have become a man of fortune, pay me conſtant homage, and flatter me in a manner degrading to themſelves, and at all times irkſome to me. Refuſals attended my ſteps; and ſome were given in very ſevere terms. Delivered up almoſt wholly to

deſpair, I recollected that your grandfather gained every heart by his mild and honourable character. I viſited this venerable old man. My child, he ſaid, diſpoſe of every thing that belongs to me: to the hundred *louis* which are abſolutely neceſſary, we muſt add a hundred more for two very long journeys.

'The good man conſulted more the generoſity of his heart than the narrowneſs of his means. Two horſes were ſold, without my knowledge, to complete the ſum. I departed enriched by his preſents; honoured by his bleſſings. I made a vow not to die without teſtifying my gratitude either to him or to ſome of his relatives. The good fortune beſtowed on me by heaven is without doubt the reward of this noble reſolution, which I have this day fulfilled with a pleaſure not to be conceived, ſince you ſhow yourſelf the worthy heir of my benefactor.'

We were pleaſed at the notice which this writer has taken of an art much neglected in the rudiments of our education. This is the art 'of reading,' of which few perſons condeſcend to ſpeak, and which ſtill fewer endeavour by a courſe of ſtudy to acquire. A teacher of this art would languiſh for want of ſcholars, though he might with reaſon aſſure them that a proficiency in it would be equally ornamental to both ſexes. Ought we then to abandon to chance an advantage of ſuch value? The ground of this error is to be diſcovered in pride, which imperiouſly declares that infancy alone can learn without ſhame to read, though that age can only acquire a knowledge of words. The ſchoolmaſter leaves us equally unable to read well, to ſpeak well, or to think well.

'Reflection, intelligence, practice, and, above all, feeling, muſt concur to produce thoſe tones of voice which repreſent the different ſtates of the mind and the heart, to divert that dull monotony which ſtupefies the hearer, to attain that noble elevation from which the man of taſte looks down with contempt on bombaſt. So many excellent qualities muſt concur to produce the art of declaiming; an art ſo noble and ſo reſpected by the ancients. The obſtacles to its improvement, if we judge by the very few men who have excelled in it, are immenſe. For twenty ages, in every place, in the midſt of the moſt opulent, populous, and enlightened cities, wealth and honour have been its encouragements; yet we look round impatiently, and ſcarcely find any who are entitled to the prizes but Roſcius, Le Kain, and Garrick.

'If the art of declamation can be acquired by a very ſmall number, that of reading, the ſubaltern branch, is more eaſy of acceſs; and we are blameable in not endeavouring to take advantage of this circumſtance. When a man reads ill, he can

hardly preſerve his claims to the title of a well-educated or a learned man. The company of a perſon of taſte, whoſe verſes were admired, was univerſally courted. He was invited one autumn to a houſe in the country, where the individuals preſent amuſed themſelves in the evening with reading; but he performed ſo ill that he loſt a great part of his reputation.

'This ſentence, terrible at the firſt view, is not unjuſt. He who reads very ill, ſcarcely comprehends his ſubject, and loſes every right to indulgence by giving painful ſenſations to his hearers. Women, from the happy flexibility of their organs, and the elegance of their taſte, ſeem formed to read much better than the men; and, if they are almoſt always inferior in this reſpect, the fault muſt be attributed to the negligence of thoſe perſons to whom their early education is committed.

'A fine organ is a great advantage given by nature only, and which it is madneſs to attempt to obtain by any efforts; yet the want of it may in ſome degree be remedied by conſtant application. D'Alembert, one of the beſt readers of his time, had a weak and grating voice; whence it was ſaid, with ſome wit, "This man is ſo great a maſter of his art, that he plays admirably upon the vileſt inſtrument."

On the ſubject of puniſhment our author's ſentiments are juſt. 'The idleneſs natural to man renders him, in every period of life, an enemy to labour. In riper years he ſubdues indolence by intereſt, ambition, and *ennui*; but, in childhood, theſe arms have not yet acquired the proper temper to inſure him the victory. Rewards and threats are the common reſources; but imperious circumſtances ſuper-induce the neceſſity of chaſtiſement; a taſk both unpleaſing and difficult. Let not puniſhment by its length harden the heart; let it not degrade the mind by humiliations; let it not by caprice create oppoſition; and, in particular, let it not injure the health by indiſcrete faſts.'

The eſſay terminates with the following juſt remarks:

'Virtue will be ever the ſtrongeſt mark of genius, and the only ſource of conſtant ſucceſs. Vice is the conſequence of narrow thoughts; and, through a ſeries of errors, it conducts us to final ignominy.'

A conſiderable part of the volume is occupied by tranſlations from Goldſmith, Swift, and Johnſon, which are not without merit, and will be read with pleaſure, as judicious confirmations of many of the author's own reflections.

Fragmens Moraux et Littéraires. Par A. H. Dampmartin. Berlin. 1797.

Moral and Literary Fragments. 8*vo.* Imported by Dulau.

THE long liſt of ſubſcribers, among whom are the king and queen of Pruſſia, may be deemed a proof of the eſtimation in which the writer is holden at the court of Berlin. The fragments or eſſays have, like the preceding work, a conſiderable degree of merit. We can pardon (though, for the ſake of the bookſellers, who have collected and publiſhed at a great expenſe the works of Walpole, we will not tranſlate) the following paſſage. 'Ce Walpole eſt un bel eſprit manqué, l'auteur de quelques contes Anglois, courts et fades, que perſonne ne lut jamais.'

Our eſſayiſt, we believe, miſtakes the conduct of our convicts, and has made a well-known inſtance the ground of general remark. 'In England' (he ſays) 'the wretched convicts prepare themſelves for death with peculiar joy. They ſell their bodies, of which the price becomes a ſource of raillery, and furniſhes abundance of *drink*. Nothing is heard but ſongs and burſts of laughter, where ſilence ought only to be interrupted by ſighs and complaints.' Noiſe and intemperance are certainly as improper as they are, we believe, unuſual in theſe places; but if ſociety has a right to take away the life of an individual, it ſurely is not juſtified in treating the victims of its often miſplaced vengeance with vain ſeverity, or preventing them from enjoying all the comfort which can be allowed for the few hours between condemnation and execution. We can ſtill leſs approve the following ſentiment. 'On politics as well as religion, inquiry in general produces *ennui*, or gives us trouble and uneaſineſs.' The *ennui* is the fault of the inquirer, not of the ſtudies, which are the nobleſt employments of the reaſoning faculty; and every nation which diſcourages the inquiry will ſuffer in the iſſue.

To ſome, who do not examine the propoſition with accuracy, the ſingle principle on which all morality is founded by this author will appear ſuſpicious. 'Whoever thou art, O man, employ thyſelf only on the means of procuring to thyſelf the greateſt poſſible happineſs. Thy reward will be to become one of the beſt beings in nature. This maxim, if we may preſume to expreſs ourſelves ſo ſtrongly, is the quinteſſence of thouſands of thouſands of enormous volumes: it contains the fineſt leſſons of all the moraliſts of ancient and modern times. Very little reflection will convince us that it is inconteſtably true; but, as this work was undertaken for juvenile uſe, we ſhall enlarge upon it.

'Happineſs reſults from a perfect agreement between the different parts whoſe union conſtitutes the whole of our being. Men make indiſtinct wiſhes for its attainment, but in general ſwerve from it in their actions. He who is enlightened by true wiſdom will never loſe ſight of thoſe bounds which the decrees of omnipotence permit him to approach. Before his eyes will appear many duties to be fulfilled, and the neglect of which would render all his efforts uſeleſs. He is ſenſible of the ineſtimable value of health, ſince, by the loſs of it, every enjoyment is changed. Hence he is conſtantly upon his guard to preſerve that good which a ſingle inſtant may wreſt from him. Temperance and exerciſe appear to him neceſſary aids; and nothing can induce him to ſwerve from one, or neglect the other. He perceives that the moſt agreeable ſenſations are derived from the mind: hence his own will be nouriſhed by ſtudy, and poliſhed by converſation. Reaſon alone, he is convinced, can preſerve us from the faults and errors which diſturb the tranquillity of life: hence his own will be ripened by experience and reflection. He is convinced that our exiſtence is uncertain and painful, as long as the character remains unfixed: hence his own will be formed by repeated trials, that he may acquire the important habit of reſiſting adverſity, and may not be dazzled by the uncertain favours of fortune. He perceives what influence the heart has on our deſtiny. This focus of ſentiment is a treaſure whence are derived the pleaſures of our brighteſt moments, and our comforts in the day of ſorrow. His own will be daily enriched by the practice of beneficence. His conduct, ſetting calumny at defiance, will prevent the ſtings of remorſe. Every fault draws repentance after it; and every crime is followed by remorſe.—Remorſe! horrible, cruel, unavoidable puniſhment, which takes due vengeance on the wicked man for the external advantages almoſt always enjoyed by him! He will be aſtoniſhed at the rapid advances towards happineſs, enſured by the union of a healthy body, an enlightened mind, ripened intelligence, a firm character, an honeſt and affectionate heart. So much happineſs, far from ſatisfying his deſires, would remain imperfect, if he ſhould entertain juſt apprehenſions that the ſoul, that ſacred light, the image of divinity, would be extinguiſhed at death, or plunged into eternal puniſhment. Religion diſpels ſuch alarms, and becomes the honoured capital which crowns the edifice of his happineſs.

'Religion, all-powerful, tears away the roots of criminal paſſions whoſe branches are ſcarcely pruned by human wiſdom. Her gifts are the greateſt that can be conceived. She offers to us, as a recompenſe for the moments conſecrated to virtue, manſions of immenſe and eternal happineſs. By her miraculous power, her favoured offſpring poſſeſs grandeur, before,

which the pride of paganiſm falls proſtrate. Marcus Aurelius, too great to diſſemble his admiration, exclaimed, I conceive, that, with the ſupport of philoſophy, ſome men ſhow themſelves to be moderate, temperate, juſt, diſintereſted: but what ſupernatural power animates the Chriſtians, when they bleſs the implacable executioner who is preparing to ſurround them with flames, or plunge the ſword into their breaſts?'

Vie de Marie Antoinette, Reine de France. Hambourg. 1798.

Life of the late Queen of France. Small 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Imported by De Boffe.

THE many acts of benevolence recorded of the unfortunate queen of France in this volume will reſcue her character from the calumnies which, during her life, were profuſely thrown out againſt her; and we would willingly believe, that a princeſs poſſeſſing ſuch amiable qualities as are aſcribed to her, was perfectly innocent of the crimes of which ſhe was accuſed. The conſtancy of her affection for her family was proved in very difficult circumſtances; and the dignity of her deportment in her laſt moments was worthy of the high ſtation which ſhe once filled. While we are reading the account of her ſufferings, her failings ceaſe to be obſerved; we think only of her good qualities; we are affected by the ſimple narrative of her life, and ſhed tears of compaſſion on the fate of Marie-Antoinette.

Der Mäuſefallen und Hechelkrämer, eine Geſchichte ſehr wunderbar und doch ganz natürlich. Von S. H. Spies. Leipſic.

The Mouſe-trap-Seller and Pedlar; a very wonderful and yet natural Story. 8*vo.* Imported by Eſcher.

A Poor Savoyard arrives at a village in Germany, where a cunning fellow had given a hint, that the Italians came in diſguiſe to a neighbouring mountain to diſcover hidden treaſures. The poor man is conſequently treated as the ſon of a great perſonage. Two neighbours endeavour to ſecure him to themſelves; and by means of plots and counterplots the young man is led a curious dance round the mountains. Murders, aſſaſſinations, priſons, and the uſual apparatus of terror to work upon the ſolid nerves of a rough German, are brought into play; and, after a tedious courſe through theſe dull pages, the natural manner in which, according to our author, the whole myſtery is explained, forms a ſtriking contraſt to the eaſe and elegance by which Mrs. Radcliffe accounts for the deluſions in her romances.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FOR want of materials, this retroſpect will not involve ſuch a multiplicity of works as we have frequently had occaſion to mention; but the deficiency will, we hope, be ſupplied in a future Appendix.

FRANCE.

At Paris the following productions have recently appeared:

Traité élémentaire de l' Analyſe Mathématique, par J. A. J. Couſin. An Elementary Treatiſe of Mathematical Analyſis, by Profeſſor Couſin, 1797.—This treatiſe is divided into four parts. In the firſt part, the principles of analyſis are laid down; and, in the ſecond, they are developed with great preciſion. The third treats of the reſolution of determinate equations; and the fourth, of indeterminate analyſis. The work, upon the whole, adds conſiderably to the reputation of M. Couſin.

Annales de Chimie, ou Récueil de Mémoires concernant la Chimie et les Arts qui en dépendent, par les Citoyens Guyton, Monge, &c. Annals of Chemiſtry, or a Collection of Memoirs relative to that Science and the Arts which are connected with it.—Theſe annals were diſcontinued in the year 1793; but they have lately been reſumed. Among the articles contained in ſome of the new numbers, are the following. An account is given of a gravimeter, or inſtrument for aſcertaining the ſpecific gravity of ſolids and fluids, invented by M. Guyton. Remarks on a diſorder in trees, analogous to an ulcer, are offered by Vauquelin. A memoir concerning three ſpecies of hydro-carbonate gas, another reſpecting volatile oils, ſeveral papers on the ſubject of phoſphorus, others on the Strontian earth and barytes, on alum, on Pruſſian blue, &c. are alſo preſented to the public.

Traité complet d'Anatomie, &c. A complete Treatiſe of Anatomy, by A. Boyer.

Les Plantes, &c. A Poem on the ſubject of Plants, by Caſtel.

Réfutation du Livre de l' Eſprit, par J. F. de-la-Harpe. A Refutation of the Work of Helvetius on the Mind, 8vo.—In ſome parts of this production, the diſputant is not unſucceſsful; but he is not an able metaphyſician.

Du Fanatiſme, &c. Of Fanaticiſm, or of the Perſecution of Chriſtianity and its Miniſters by the Barbarians of the eighteenth Century.—M. de-la-Harpe, in this pamphlet, endeavours to check the progreſs of infidelity among his countrymen; but his arguments are not likely to be efficacious.

Œuvres de Mancini-Nivernois. Miſcellaneous Works of Mancini-Nivernois, 8vo. Vols. III. IV. V.—The fables of this writer we have already reviewed *. They compoſe the two firſt volumes of his works: the three others contain letters, eſſays, biographical ſketches, tranſlations, &c. Many of the pieces are amuſing, and ſome are very intereſting.

L'Eſpion de la Révolution Françaiſe. The Spy of the French Revolution, 2 Vols. 8vo.—This is a work more lively than ſound; and the author, who is an enemy to the republican ſyſtem, is more acrimonious in his remarks than veracious in his ſtatements.

Révolution, &c. Account of the Revolution of the 4th of September, 1797.—This is apparently an authentic narrative of that conſpiracy which terminated in the triumph of the directory over the two legiſlative councils of the French republic.

Syſtême maritime et politique des Européens pendant le dix-huitiême Siècle, &c. View of the maritime and political Syſtem of the European Nations during the eighteenth Century.—The jealouſy conceived by the French of the naval dominion of Great Britain, ſeems chiefly to have prompted M. Arnould to the delineation of this ſpirited ſketch.

Eloge Hiſtorique du Général Marceau. Hiſtorical Eulogium upon Marceau.—This republican officer appears to have been a man of conſiderable merit. M. La-Vallée is his panegyriſt.

Eſſai ſur la Topographie phyſique et medicale, &c. Eſſay on the political and medical Topography of Paris, by A. Rovière.—The author examines the ſituation, air, and ſoil, of the French metropolis: he alſo treats of the diet, mode of living, &c. of the inhabitants; and he ſubjoins a deſcription of the hoſpitals.

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* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XX. p. 529.

Voyage en Angleterre, &c. Travels in England, Scotland, and the Hebrides, by B. Faujas Saint-Fond. 2 vols. 8vo. —Furniſhed with letters of recommendation, and ſtill more recommended by his own reputation, M. Faujas arrived, ſome years ago, in England; and having attentively inſpected the chief objects of curioſity in art and ſcience which London afforded, he directed his courſe to North-Britain, principally for the purpoſe of viſiting Staffa. After a technical deſcription of this 'volcanic ſuperfœtation,' he adds, 'I have ſeen ſeveral ancient volcanoes; but I never met with any thing comparable to this ſcene, for the admirable regularity of the pillars, the elevation of the arch, the ſituation, form, and elegance, of this work of nature, and its reſemblance to the maſter-pieces of art, though art ſinks to nothing when conſidered with reference to ſuch an object. We, therefore, cannot be ſurpriſed that tradition ſhould repreſent this ſpot as the abode of a hero.'—Theſe volumes manifeſt the philoſophical ſpirit and inquiſitive obſervant mind of the author.

Eſſai ſur les Cauſes, &c. Eſſay on the Cauſes of the Perfection of ancient Sculpture, by M. de Gillier.—There is ſome merit in this compoſition.

Satyres d' Young, &c. The Satires of Dr. Young, tranſlated by T. P. Bertin.—This is rather an imitation than a tranſlation of the pieces in queſtion.

HOLLAND.

Henrici Collot d' Eſcury Muſæ Juveniles. Juvenile Poems, 8vo. Rotterdam, 1797.—Among theſe poems, are epiſtles from Lucretia to Collatinus, from Sophoniſba to Maſiniſſa, and from Anne Boleyn to Henry VIII. We obſerve ſome inaccuracies; but, upon the whole, theſe pieces will not diſcredit the pupil of Nodell.

GERMANY.

Geiſt der ſpeculativer Philoſophie. Spirit of ſpeculative Philoſophy, 8vo. Vols. IV. V. VI.—M. Tiedemann, in the fourth volume, treats of the philoſophy of the Saracens, and alſo of that of the ſcholaſtic theologians of Europe. In the fifth, he continues his remarks on the doctrines and characters of the ſchool divines, and traces the decline of their influence and the riſe of a purer philoſophy. In the ſixth, he inveſtigates the opinions of the Engliſh, French, and other philoſophers and metaphyſicians of the ſeventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Vermiſchte philoſophiſche Abhandlungen, &c. Miſcellaneous philoſophical Treatiſes, 8vo. Halle, 1797.—Profeſſor Jacob is the author of theſe eſſays, which chiefly relate to religion, morals, *teleology* (or the doctrine of perfection), and politics.

Anleitung zu einem Chriſtlichen Wandel. A Guide to a Chriſtian Life, by O. Braun. Coburg.—The ſale of this work has been prohibited by imperial deſpotiſm, as ſome of the opinions delivered in it are too liberal for the meridian of Vienna.

Über die Enthauptung. Remarks on Decapitation. Tübingen.—Cloſſius here endeavours to prove, that conſciouſneſs remains for ſome time after the ſeparation of the head from the body.

Verſuche, &c. Experiments, by F. A. von Humboldt, on irritated Fibres of Nerves and Muſcles. Berlin.—This is the firſt volume of a curious work upon animal electricity.

Flora Indiæ Occidentalis aucta, &c.—An extended Account of the Plants of the Weſt-Indies, by Swartz. Vol I. Erlang.

Statiſtiſche Aufklärungen über wichtige Theile, &c. Statiſtic Illuſtrations of important Objects connected with the Auſtrian Dominions. Vols. I. II. Göttingen. 1795—1797.—M. Grellmann has rendered this work uſeful and entertaining.

Sammlung nützlicher Aufsatze, &c. Collection of architectural Eſſays and Information, 4to. Vols. I. II. Berlin.

Abriſs des Lebens, &c. Sketch of the Life and Reign of Catharine II. 8vo. Berlin.—The delineator of this ſketch is too partial to the memory of the northern empreſs.

Anecdoten, &c. Anecdotes of the private Life of Catharine II. Paul, and his family. Hamburg.—Theſe anecdotes have the appearance of authenticity.

Notiz von J. Winkelmann. Biographical and literary Memoranda concerning Winkelmann. 4to. Magdeburg.

Platonis Gorgias, &c. Gotha.—This is a new edition, by Findeiſen, of the Gorgias of Plato; and the accuracy of the editor deſerves commendation.

A View of the Engliſh Editions, Tranſlations, and Illuſtrations, of Greek and Latin Authors, with Remarks, by L. W. Brüggemann, 8vo. Stettin, 1797.—The compiler merits the thanks of our countrymen for his diligent attention to their labours in the department of claſſical literature.

Hebräiſche Sprachlehr:—a new Hebrew grammar, by Vater. Leipſic.

Nouveau Voyage autour de ma Chambre. A new Journey round my Apartment. 12mo. Brunſwick.—This imitation of a work of the chevalier Ximenes which bears the ſame title, is not ſo lively or ingenious as its model.

Familien-Geſchichten, &c. Hiſtories of Families. 2 Vols. 8vo. Berlin.—M. La-Fontaine, the author of the novel of Clara Dupleſſis and Clairant, has in theſe volumes given an intereſting account of the ſuppoſed family of the Haldens.

SWEDEN.

Vetenſkaps Academiens nya Handlingar, &c. New Tranſactions of the Academy of Sciences, for 1796. 4to. Stockholm.—The contents of this volume are, an account of a perſon who, though born without arms or legs, could write, carve wood, and perform other acts, of which it might have been ſuppoſed that he was incapable; inſtructions for making anchors; an eſſay on the diſtance of comets from the earth; obſervations on moſſes; a deſcription of a machine for draining fields; a caſe proving the utility of water, impregnated with fixed air, in nervous diſeaſes; and many other articles.

Utkaſt til en Handbok, &c. Sketch of a Manual of eccleſiaſtical Promotion, 8vo. Wexio, 1797.—The biſhop of Wexio has here traced the modes of ſupplying vacancies in the dignities and offices of the church, from the æra of the Reformation.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Travels in Europe, Africa, and Aſia, made between the Years, 1770 and 1779. By Charles Peter Thunberg, M. D. &c. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1*l.* 4*s.* Rivingtons.

THE Cape of Good Hope and the Aſiatic iſlands are at preſent objects of ſuch eager curioſity and political importance, that our accidental delay of the volumes before us may have rendered them unuſually intereſting. We, ſome years ago, accompanied a traveller of the Linnæan ſchool, in ſome of the ſouthern regions of Africa; and gave an account of the country and the policy of its governors, under the guidance of the judicious Sparrman *. The preſent traveller is not a ſtranger in our pages: the celebrity of Thunberg's character as a naturaliſt, led us to take up the preſent work in its German dreſs; but, when we had given an account of his firſt volume †, the ſubject was diſcontinued, as an Engliſh tranſlation was ſoon expected; and the work, from unavoidable

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* See Crit. Rev. Vol. LX. p. 321. † See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. VIII. p. 525.

accidents, has not been reſumed, until the country, which is the principal ſubject of his examination, has become our own.

We left M. Thunberg preparing for his ſecond journey, in company with Mr. Maſſon. Theſe travellers went nearly in the route of Dr. Sparrman, which we mention particularly as Sparrman's work will ſupply the deficiency of a map, which would otherwiſe be ſeverely felt in the peruſal of the preſent travels. They proceeded, however, at firſt, more to the north than that naturaliſt, and did not extend their route beyond Sunday river to the eaſt; but Sparrman went to Great-Fiſh river, on the confines of Caffraria. As we have already deſcribed the principal objects in this courſe, we ſhall ſelect only ſome facts and obſervations of peculiar curioſity.

In the former part of the tour, Dr. Thunberg found that the country was hilly, with vales interſperſed, and that the hills diverged more from each other, the farther eaſtward they ran. Thus the ſnowy mountains, above Great-Fiſh river, though at a great diſtance from the ſea, may form one of theſe branches; mountains, which, with the river, divide the Hottentots from the Caffres on the eaſt and a whiter race on the north. The hills and the adjacent valleys are alone inhabited; and the coloniſts are diſtantly ſcattered, oppreſſed with taxes for defence againſt wild beaſts (which now are not numerous in this part), and cramped by political and fiſcal regulations, which greatly obſtruct their proſperity. The following circumſtances reſpecting the lion are new:

'When he was forty years of age, he ſhot, in a narrow paſs in a wood, a lion, which immediately fell, without his obſerving that there were two of them together. The other lion ruſhed immediately upon him, before he had time to load his piece, and not only wounded him with its ſharp claws to ſuch a degree that he fainted away, but alſo gnawed his left arm and ſide, and lacerated him in ſuch a terrible manner, that he lay for dead on the ground. The lion, that in general is poſſeſſed of too noble a ſpirit to revenge itſelf on a dead man, if not impelled by hunger, left him in this ſituation, ſo that he was at length carried home by his ſervants. His wife, a ſtirring and active woman, immediately fetched ſeveral herbs, which ſhe boiled in water, and, with the decoction, daily waſhed, fomented, and bound up his wounds, ſo that he was at laſt reſtored to perfect health. He was ſo much diſabled however in this arm, that he could never afterwards handle a muſquet. He had been the firſt ſportſman in the colony, and, by killing elephants and ſelling their teeth, had acquired a tolerable fortune. This man informed me that, in its infancy, the colony had ſo ſmall an extent, and the Hottentots in it were ſo numerous, that the Chriſtian ſettlers could not without danger venture as far as Zwellendam. At that time too the elephants abounded ſo much, even near the Cape, that in travelling to and from the Cape, one might kill a great

many of them. Thus he had often ſhot four or five in a day, and ſometimes twelve or thirteen. Twice in his life, when he was out in purſuit of theſe animals, he had deſtroyed with his gun, twenty-two elephants each day. A good ſportſman always kills the elephant at one ſhot, but, ſhould he hit any of the fore-legs, ſo as to break it, two ſhot muſt be fired: the hunter always takes his aim in ſuch a manner as that the ball ſhall paſs through the lungs. The ball is always mixed with one third of tin, and weighs a quarter of a pound; the piece is in proportion to this, and rather heavy. Each elephant's tooth weighs from thirty, to one hundred and thirty pounds.' Vol. ii. P. 38.

'A lion may lie in a buſh without moving when a man is paſſing by, ſo that the man ſeems only to take no notice of it. It may likewiſe perhaps ſtart up, without doing any harm, if the man do but ſtand ſtill, and not take to his legs. A hungry lion, however, is much more dangerous, and leſs merciful; yet it is not fond of attacking a man, at leaſt it is very nice in the choice of its prey, ſo that it prefers a dog to an ox, and had much rather eat a Hottentot than a Chriſtian, perhaps becauſe the Hottentot, being beſmeared, always ſtinks, and becauſe, as he never uſes ſalt or ſpices, the juices of his body are not ſo acrid. It likewiſe rather attacks a Hottentot or ſlave than buffalo-beef that is hanging up; thus it happened to our landlord one night, that the lion paſſed through the buſhes where beef of this kind was hung up in order to ſeize a ſleeping Hottentot. In a wood, to climb up into a tree is a ſure way of avoiding the lion, but not the tyger, which frequently, when warmly purſued by the hounds, runs up into a tree, and finds a ſafe aſylum there. On meeting a lion, one ought never to run away, but ſtand ſtill, pluck up courage, and look it ſtern in the face. If a lion lies ſtill without wagging its tail, there is no danger, but if it makes any motion with its tail, then it is hungry, and you are in great danger. If you are ſo ſituated that there is a pit between the lion and yourſelf, you may then fire on it, as it will not venture acroſs the pit, neither will it purſue any one up an height.

'In proportion as the farmers have cleared the land, and laid out farms in the interior parts of the country, the lion and other fierce animals have neceſſarily been put to flight and deſtroyed. This our hoſt knew not long ſince by woeful experience, but now lived in ſome degree of ſecurity with reſpect to his flocks and herds. The lion is poſſeſſed of ſuch immenſe ſtrength, that he will not only attack an ox of the largeſt ſize, but will very nimbly throw it over his ſhoulders, and leap over a fence four feet high with it, although at the ſame time the ox's legs hang dangling on the ground. No animal however is eaſier to extirpate than the lion, notwithſtanding its ſtreat ſtrength, agility, and ſagacity. After having diſcovered by the track, how many lions there are in the troop, the

ſame number of muſquets are placed on the ſpot whither it is ſuppoſed that the lion will come; after this a piece of carrion is tied to a ſtrong cord, which is faſtened to the trigger of one of theſe guns; the inſtant that the lion touches the carrion, the gun goes off, which is ſo placed as to ſhoot the beaſt through the head. The other lions that are preſent are ſo far from being ſcared away by the report, that it may happen that one of them ſhall go towards the ſmoke, and fix its claws into the diſcharged gun, and all the reſt, one after the other, fall before the other guns, inſomuch that ſometimes the whole troop is deſtroyed in one night. But ſhould a lion chance to be only wounded, and not killed on one of theſe occaſions, he will never more approach a ſpring-gun, and the lion thus wounded will attack a man without being impelled to it by hunger.' Vol. ii. p. 69.

The ſalt pan, near Zwartkops river, is a curious object. It is a valley three-fourths of a mile in diameter, covered with pure cryſtalline ſalt, ſo as to reſemble a frozen lake. The depth of the water is about four feet. The ſalt is not derived from the ſea; but, like ſome of the inland parts of America, the country around conſiſts almoſt entirely of foſſil ſalt. The warm baths, not far diſtant, alſo contain ſalt.—The following deſcription of a plant, found near the Cape, claims attention.

'The fruit of a ſpecies of Meſembryanthemum was ſometimes brought to the town as a rarity, and was called *Roſa de Jericho*. When it is put into water, it gradually opens all its ſeed-veſſels, and exactly reſembles a ſun; and when it becomes dry again, it contracts itſelf and cloſes by degrees. This is no leſs a neceſſary than ſingular property, which points out the admirable inſtitution of an all-wiſe Creator; in as much as this plant, which is found in the moſt arid plains, keeps its ſeeds faſt locked up in time of drought; but when the rainy ſeaſon comes, and the ſeeds can grow, it opens its receptacles, and lets fall the ſeeds, in order that they may be diſperſed abroad. The water in which this fruit has lain is ſometimes given to women that are near their time, and is thought to procure them an eaſy delivery.' Vol. ii. p. 128.

The laſt journey in this country was to Roggevelt, the region north of the cape, the ſcene of colonel Gordon's travels, which we have had occaſion to record. In this rugged tract, Mr. Maſſon met with thoſe beautiful ſtapeliæ, the vegetable camels of the deſert, which we ſhall ſoon more particularly mention, in our review of his ſplendid publication.

We have already remarked, that, in Africa, the hills and the more elevated valleys are the chief ſeats of the human race. The plains, called Carrows, are barren and deſerted; they afford no eſculent vegetable, no inſect; and only ſome

ſmall quadrupeds have ever been ſeen to inhabit them, fed perhaps by the remains of thoſe animals which have periſhed in the inhoſpitable deſert. In the preſent journey, our travellers paſſed through deſerts equally barren in more elevated ſpots, the retreats of a race formerly noticed in our review of Sparrman's journey—the Boſhie men, perhaps the loweſt order of human kind. They are of a yellowiſh-brown colour, with delicate limbs, and a projecting abdomen, which diſfigures and ſometimes obſcures the man. Theſe beings paſs their time in the extremes of gluttony and want. In this region they ſupply warmth by huddling together in a pit, and procure food by depredations. They ſeem to live for a time on the water of the ſalt pans.

'The Boſhieſmen ſometimes make uſe of javelins, but the ſhafts are ſhorter and thicker than thoſe of the Caffres Aſſagays; which they uſe not only to throw, but likewiſe, and indeed chiefly, for the purpoſe of killing the cattle they have ſtolen; but their principal arms, which they uſe in war and for their own defence in general, are bows and poiſoned arrows, and theſe they are taught to handle with great dexterity. The arrow is armed with a thin triangular piece of iron, faſtened with a ſtring to a bone of a finger's length, to the end of which again is faſtened a reed. This iron as well as the bone is afterwards rubbed with poiſon extracted from ſerpents. The Boſhieſmen are the moſt expert markſmen of all the Hottentots, and are ſaid to be able to ſhoot their arrows to the diſtance of 280 paces. They alſo know how to avoid the arrows of others with the greateſt nimbleneſs and dexterity, juſt as baboons do when ſtones are thrown at them; and if they could but ſee the muſquet-balls of the Europeans, they would think themſelves able to eſcape them likewiſe. To running the Boſhieſmen Hottentots are ſo inured, as not to be excelled in it by any others; but can almoſt hold out longer than a horſe. On the level plains they are eaſily overtaken by a man on horſeback; but very ſeldom if the road be ſtony, and never in mountainous places.

'They can endure hunger a longer time; but when they have a plentiful ſupply will eat ſo immoderately as to diſtend their bellies to an amazing ſize. When oppreſſed by hunger, they tie a belt round their bodies, which they gradually draw tighter, till the navel is brought cloſe to the back-bone.

'When a Boſhieſman has caught a ſerpent, and killed it, he does not, according to report, cut off its head, but bites it off, and then cutting out the veſicle containing the poiſon, dries it in the ſun till it becomes viſcid and tough, and then mixes it with the juice of a poiſonous tree, (frequently the *Ceſtrum venenatum*) which makes the poiſon adhere the faſter to the arrow.

'The Hottentots and Boſhieſmen are ſaid to fortify themſelves againſt poiſoned darts and the bite of venomous ani-

mals, by ſuffering themſelves to be gradually bitten by ſerpents, ſcorpions, and other venomous creatures, till they become accuſtomed to it; but theſe trials ſometimes coſt them their lives. The urine of an Hottentot thus prepared is eſteemed an excellent antidote or counterpoiſon, and is therefore drank by ſuch as have been bitten by ſerpents.

'When it thunders, the Boſhieſmen are very angry and curſe bitterly, thinking, that the ſtorm is occaſioned by ſome evil being.' Vol. ii. p. 161.

The Goths of Scandinavia, the Tartar and the Hindu tribes, in ſimilar circumſtances, claſh their arms and bend their bows: the more warlike tribes oppoſe, the more cowardly only rail at, the evil being. The principal idea is the ſame, and may have occurred in regions the moſt diſtant without raiſing the ſuſpicion of a common origin.

This is the country of the oſtrich, the devourer of the corn, amidſt which he conceals himſelf by bending his long neck. When his head is reared, the neck gives him an ample field of viſion; and he can make his eſcape in time. His wings aſſiſt him in running; and, with the wind, he can outſtrip a fleet horſe. The ſpring-bocks ſometimes migrate in tribes like the lemures, with the ſame determined perſeverance, ſacrificing their rear and flanks to the lion, and leaving their young to certain deſtruction, while they preſs forward to the place of their deſtination.

At his return to the Cape, M. Thunberg takes an opportunity of deſcribing the Hottentots; but, as theſe beings are now well known, we ſhall only notice ſhortly ſome circumſtances which have been leſs attended to. Their form of government is patriarchal; and their tribes are diſtinct, and united among themſelves, ſo that they are probably all derived from a few individuals; and, as theſe are diſtinguiſhed in almoſt every reſpect from their neighbours on the eaſt and the north, while they are bounded by the ſea on the weſt, they are probably an emigrant race, increaſed at one time to a conſiderable number. As coloniſation however has expanded a more civiliſed nation, the Hottentots, like the native Americans, have begun to diſappear, and may in a few centuries be loſt. They have no knowledge of the year, but celebrate every new moon, and number their ages by the ſucceſſion of the bulbous plants. Circumciſion ſeems to have been a very ancient rite among them; but it is not eaſy to trace it to any religious diſpenſation, nor is it, at preſent, commonly practiſed. No one will ſuſpect it to be a civil inſtitution, with a view to cleanlineſs. We have collected theſe facts as a foundation for the ſuperſtructure of others. It is not our buſineſs to erect ſyſtems.

The firſt object that occurs in the voyage to Java, is the deſcription of Batavia.

'The citadel is ſituated at one end of the town, and near the ſea ſide, is tolerably large, and contains the town-hall, a dwelling-houſe, a warehouſe, and ſeveral other neceſſary buildings.

'Without as well as within the town there are canals, the ſides of which are lined with brick. Through theſe boats paſs, both large and ſmall, and convey pot-herbs, fruit, and other articles for ſale, to different parts of the town, as alſo freſh graſs for horſes. The canals are ſeldom above four feet in depth, and empty their water into the road.

'The town is remarkably large and well built; the houſes are moſtly of ſtone, and are elegant, with ſpacious rooms, which are open to the free air, in order that they may be refreſhing and cool in this burning climate. The ſtreets are not paved; as the ſtones being heated by the ſcorching rays of the ſun, would hurt the feet of the ſlaves, who go bare-footed, as alſo of the horſes, which here are not ſhod. A row of flat ſtones, however, is frequently laid for the accomodation of the Europeans.

'Here, juſt as in Amſterdam, is to be found a mixture of all nations and languages. Here are ſome of almoſt every nation in India, who carry on a profitable traffic in this capital of the Eaſt Indies.

'Excluſive of the Javaneſe, who are the original inhabitants of the iſland, the Chineſe conſtitute the major part of its inhabitants, and live not only in the town and its ſuburbs, but alſo in the country. Theſe people carry on, like the Jews in Holland, a very extenſive trade, and cultivate moſt of the arts and handicraft profeſſions. They dreſs for the moſt part here in the ſame manner as in China, in frocks, with their heads ſhaved, and only a round ſpot left at the crown, the hair of which is plated into a long queue.' Vol. ii. P. 216.

The heat, though no more than from 80° to 86° of Fahrenheit, is unuſually oppreſſive from the ſtagnant air, the vicinity of the bogs, and the very inconſiderable breeze of evening. The manners are thoſe of every tropical region, and are connected with the influence of an intenſe vertical ſun. Hoſpitality is a common virtue; and the Europeans, at their country houſes, enjoy every luxury which wealth can procure. The original inhabitants are tall, of a yellow complexion, and not unpleaſing. Their language is their own; and, unlike other tropical inhabitants, they conſider themſelves as a free people. Their religion is that of Mohammed. The Malay language is current, and moſt uſeful. M. Thunberg has therefore added a vocabulary of that tongue.

Our traveller deſcribes very particularly the different delicious fruits which the genial ſun of this region ripens with

peculiar flavour. The currie (now, from the extent of Aſiatic luxury, ſo well known) is deſcribed at ſome length, with the *warm colouring* which it is ſo calculated to excite.

'The burning heat of the air, and exceſſive perſpiration, make bathing very neceſſary: and indeed a day ſeldom paſſes without one's ſeeing the Indians ſplaſhing about in the water. For this purpoſe they chooſe ſuch places, either in the rivulets or creeks, where they are ſecure from the crocodile. By theſe means their bodies are cleanſed, and their pores opened: beſides this the cold water ſtrengthens their bodies, ſo that they afterwards perſpire leſs, and grow more light and lively.

'The ſpice trade, it cannot be denied, brings the Dutch company the greateſt profits of any; no private perſon therefore, whether he be an officer on the civil liſt, a burgher or a naval officer, is ſuffered to have any thing to do with it; but the company has engroſſed the whole to itſelf. If any one is caught ſmuggling in this article, it always coſt him his life, or at leaſt he is branded with a red hot iron, and impriſoned for life.

'Opium, which is commonly called amphion, is conſidered as being contraband in the higheſt degree; the commerce in it likewiſe is entirely reſerved to the company alone, and the puniſhment in caſe of treſpaſs, extremely ſevere. This commodity is chiefly brought from Bengal, and brings the company an immenſe profit. A great conſumption of opium is made in Java, and the adjacent iſlands. The Indians uſe it very much, but not ſo commonly for chewing as the Turks, but, in its ſtead, make it into an electuary, with which they beſmear the top of their tobacco, after they have put it into their pipes. This, when they have ſmoaked a few whiffs of it, makes them delirious, and, as it were, drunk; and if they imprudently uſe too much of it, they are quite beſide themſelves, and raving, ſo as even to be ready to murder every one they meet. When a man, thus rendered furious by opium, comes into the ſtreet, they call out *Amok*, *Amok*, and every one has a right to kill him, as he is to all intents and purpoſes an outlaw. The privilege to ſell opium is uſually farmed out to ſome people, (for the moſt part men high in office), who are the farmers general, and who pay very large ſums for it. Theſe again retail out their privilege to others, or, to ſpeak more properly, they ſell opium by wholeſale at a very high price, to ſuch as diſpoſe of it in ſmall quantities to the Indians. And as ſome of the firſt people here have an intereſt and fellow-feeling in the trade, a particular ſtrict watch is kept, to prevent it from being ſmuggled into the country; and the offender is ſure to be puniſhed according to the utmoſt rigour of the law. Birds' neſts, which I had alſo ſeen at the Cape before, were here more uſed in ſoups, as nouriſhing and delicious. They are compoſed of glutinous fibres, and diſſolve into a tranſparent jelly, when put into warm water. They were ſaid to be found in abundance

in the Javaneſe mountains, and to be a profitable article of commerce, eſpecially in China. This trade is alſo monopolized by the company, and is generally farmed out to the higheſt bidder. Theſe neſts have hardly any taſte, but are nouriſhing, and eaſy of digeſtion.' Vol. ii. p. 285.

In this paſſage, the reader will perceive the origin of 'run-a-*muck*:' the word is from *makak*, drunk.—Some particulars reſpecting crocodiles deſerve notice.

'Of crocodiles there is a very great abundance near the mouths of the rivers, and in the ſtreams of this iſland. This creature grows to a conſiderable length. In my botanical excurſions I frequently ſaw them lying on the beach, baſking and ſleeping in the ſun. Sometimes they are taken by the Javaneſe with a hook, a circumſtance which ſeems almoſt incredible. The mouth of this animal is very wide, and the teeth in both his jaws as ſharp as chiſſels; ſo that with the greateſt eaſe he can bite aſunder the ſtrongeſt rope. In order to catch him, the Javaneſe uſe a very looſely twiſted cord of cotton, at the end of which a hook is faſtened with ſome carrion or freſh meat on it. When the crocodile, after having ſwallowed the hook, endeavours to bite the cord aſunder, his teeth get faſt between its looſe fibres, ſo that he is not able to bite it in two. The hook that he has ſwallowed likewiſe prevents him from tearing the cord to pieces. The hook, as I was told, is made of wood; and as ſoon as the crocodile is obſerved to have faſtened, people come to aſſiſt his antagoniſts, and kill him with other inſtruments. So that it is poſſible indeed to catch a Leviathan with a hook; it muſt not however be done by dint of ſtrength, but by artifice and ſtratagem.' Vol. ii. p. 290.

Various other intereſting facts and circumſtances may be found in this volume, for which we muſt refer to the work: but, before we conclude this part of our ſurvey, we will extract an account of the Javaneſe.

'The Moors, who live at Batavia, are, as they are elſewhere, chiefly merchants, and diſtinguiſhable by their peculiar and handſome mode of dreſs. They are frequently ſtout and tall men, with long black hair, which they fold up in a white cloth, like a turban, and wear whiſkers. Some of them wear a cap, or round hat, on their head. Their dreſs is a large and wide gown or ſhirt, for the moſt part of white cotton, which is tied with a ſtring or broad ribbon under the breaſt, and is wide at bottom, at the ſame time reaching down to the feet. Their ſhoes are wide, and terminate in a long ſlender point, which is turned up, and, by the richer ſorts they were frequently embroidered with gold.

'The Javaneſe always ſit croſs-legged on a ſtraw mat laid on the floor or on the ground itſelf. On the road, or in the ſtreet, they ſit on their heels. They compliment each other and ſalute in

the ſame manner as moſt other Indian nations do, viz. by clapping their hands together, and lifting them up againſt their forehead. They take hold of their victuals with their fingers, without uſing either knife or fork. Their dreſs conſiſts of a handkerchief, which they twiſt about their head; a waiſtcoat with many ſmall buttons on it; and a garment *(Kajin)*, which they faſten about their waiſt. The waiſtcoats of the better ſort of people are frequently very handſome, and elegantly worked. They wear ſlippers, but go bare-legged. Their ſlippers are quite ſquare at the toes and turn up. Some wear a cylindrical cap cut off ſquare, as it were, at top, and made of very white cotton, and ſo much loaded with rice ſtarch, as to be ſtiff and quite tranſparent. The women wear a garment, which, after covering their bodies, reaches down to their feet, and is folded together about their waiſts; and over this they wear a half ſhirt. The hair is wreathed up in a coil upon the crown, and faſtened with a pin. People of quality wear ſlippers alſo, which are often very richly embroidered.

'The children of theſe people, like thoſe of many other Indian nations, are educated in a very ſimple inartificial way. They are ſeldom heard to cry. I ſaw them frequently left by their mothers on a mat ſpread on the earth, to amuſe themſelves, and crawling about on all fours till they could walk. They are never laced nor ſwaddled, and I did not ſee one deformed child or cripple among them.

'The principal people among the Javaneſe live in great ſplendor, and are attended by ſeveral domeſtics, one of which carries a pinang box, the ſecond a tobacco pipe, and the third tobacco, the fourth a ſpitting baſon, the fifth an umbrella, &c. nay, the ladies are even carried in chairs mounted with ſilver, and the chieftains have ſometimes ſilver or gold ſcabbards to their ſide arms.

'The Javaneſe are of a yellow colour, with black and rather prominent eyes, the noſe very ſlightly turned up, but yet ſhort and blunt; the hair long and black, the mouth by no means large, but the upper lip of a moon-like figure, turned up, thick and rather pouting. They are moſtly of the middle ſize, or rather tall than otherwiſe.' Vol. ii. P. 294.

(*To be continued.*)

Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. ſelected from the Correſpondence of the Bath and Weſt of England Society for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Vols. VI. VII. 8vo. 6s. each. Boards. Dilly. 1797.

THE objects of provincial ſocieties are neceſſarily local; and the remarks of profeſſional men, unaccuſtomed to arrange or condenſe their ſentiments, will ſometimes wander in

diffuſeneſs, or be interrupted by digreſſions. The latter fault, though not glaringly conſpicuous in the volumes before us, ſometimes occurs; and this circumſtance, joined with the partial intereſt which obſervations merely local muſt excite, will, we truſt, excuſe the conciſeneſs of our account.

The firſt article in the ſixth volume, conſiſts of a ſeries of letters from Mr. South, on the properties of different woods, and the management of plantations. He ſometimes deſcends to minute particulars, ſufficiently known; but his enthuſiaſm in favour of the lords of the vegetable creation, and his truly patriotic efforts, would cover greater faults. His obſervations ſhould not be abridged: the whole ſhould be peruſed together. We know not whether his intended publication, on the management of peach and nectarine trees, has yet appeared; but, from the preſent ſpecimen of his abilities, we form favourable expectations of this work.

The deſcription and uſes of the ſward-cutter, invented by Mr. Sandilands, cannot be underſtood without the plate.—The anſwers of ſir Thomas Beevor to Mr. Le Blanc, reſpecting the management of the turnep-rooted cabbage, are not generally intereſting; and his miſcellaneous remarks are of a ſimilar kind. The Swediſh turnep ſeems to have ſucceeded under his management; and, from a report which is here given, the diminution of oak timber is by no means ſo alarming, as Mr. South has repreſented in his letters.—The next article is on the mowing cabbage, which, ſir Thomas found, did not ſhoot in any advantageous degree, after being fed down; but he thinks it might have been eaten too cloſe. This gentleman alſo obſerves, with propriety, that the characteriſtic advantages of many plants, for winter feeding, have been by no means fairly aſcertained. Mr. Wimpey offers ſome obſervations on the management and uſe of the mangel-wurtzel; a root now (perhaps juſtly) neglected.

Mr. Wagſtaffe has communicated ſome remarks on tranſplanting wheat, grafting apples and pears, on the ſaccharine qualities of pears, on crab-ſtocks, &c. but, except on graſting, his ideas appear to be in ſome meaſure viſionary.

Mr. Onley's diſquiſition on wool and ſheep is vague and unſatisfactory. He ſeems to diſapprove the allotment of ſo much ground to ſheep-walks, for the purpoſe of making the wool finer; and yet wiſhes the growth of fine wool to be encouraged. We do not mean to aſſert, that theſe points are inconſiſtent with each other; but he has not attempted to reconcile them.

The directions for planting and grafting apple-trees, by Mr. Morſe, are clear and judicious: this paper, though ſhort, is very valuable.

Mr. Holt deſcribes a particular ſpecies of apple, ſweet and

rich in a pye, without ſugar. The ſcions, however, do not maintain the ſuperiority of the parent ſtock. This gentleman alſo mentions ſome of the cauſes, which ſeem to have prevented the tranſplanting of wheat from being generally advantageous.

Mr. Davis has communicated ſome conciſe but juſt remarks on plantations; and has deſcribed (according to the requeſt of the ſociety, intimated in a circular letter) the miſchief done in ſome grounds by the ſquirrels. They were allured by the cones of Scotch firs; and, when they had devoured theſe, they attacked the bark, which they devoured about ten or twelve feet round the ſtem. Mr. Davis alſo, in anſwer to another part of the circular letter, gives a cheering proſpect of the ſtate of oak-timber for ſhip-building: a want of it, he thinks, is by no means to be apprehended. Larch, in his opinion, is not calculated to ſupply its place.

Mr. Wyborn's diſquiſitions reſpecting the cauſe of ſmut in wheat need not detain us long. It is cauſed, he obſerves, by ſmut in the ſeed; the plant is of a deeper green than healthy wheat, and never bloſſoms. Theſe facts deſerve attention: and the writer affirms, that arſenic will prevent ſmut without danger. Some other authors combat one of theſe facts, that ſmut ariſes from the ſeed. Mr. Wimpey, in particular, has ſupported the oppoſite opinion with great probability.

A pamphlet, by Mr. Pew, on the 'better mode of providing for the poor,' (which has been publiſhed ſeparately), and ſome collateral obſervations on the ſame ſubject by ſeveral gentlemen, follow. But, in this inquiry, we cannot at preſent engage.

The account of Zetland, and of the Zetland ſheep and wool, is very ſhort and unſatisfactory. They ſeem to owe the fineneſs of their fleeces to the ſalt air, perhaps to the ſalt marſhes, and their peculiar breed.

Some miſcellaneous remarks, in which great approbation is beſtowed on the ruta-baga, or Swediſh turnep, ſucceed. The account of the qualities of milk and butter is confuſed and contradictory. In the next article, a perſon recommends, with apparent propriety, the planting of hedges with cheſnut, and other uſeful fruit-trees.

The culture of rape as food is propoſed by Mr. Rawſon; and another writer communicates an account of the ſugar maple, not eſſentially different from that which we received, ſome years ago, from Dr. Ruſh.

Mr. Anderſon's obſervations in a tour through Suffolk and Surry are very intereſting. Mr. Duckitt's farm affords a fine picture of agriculture, in its moſt improved ſtate. In ſome circumſtances, Mr. Wimpey adviſes that wheat ſhould be ſown in ſpring; but the moſt valuable article in the ſixth volume is the laſt. It is a very extenſive and perſpicuous ac-

count of the culture of potatoes, in feeding hogs, by Mr. Billingſley. The experiments are very accurately and impartially detailed; and the whole claims particular attention.

Proceeding to the ſeventh volume, we are pleaſed with the ſtatements and ſuggeſtions of Mr. Davis on the management of woods, and their ſtate in the weſtern counties. The concluſion of this article ought not to be ſuppreſſed.

'Upon a general enquiry into the ſtate of the woods in the weſtern counties, and from an actual knowledge of a great part of them, the writer hereof is of opinion, that the quantity of woodland in thoſe counties is not reduced in any great degree; that in many large tracts of woodland, great advantages have of late years been derived from exonerating them, by incloſure acts, or other agreements, from the feed of cattle, to which they were before ſubject, and by which they were very much injured; that upon the whole, as much attention, or perhaps more, is paid to the preſervation of woods, than has been in any former period; that from the quantity of woods newly planted within the laſt few years, and particularly from that ſpirit of enquiry into their value now ſo generally diffuſed throughout this kingdom, which will point out the neceſſity of protecting them when planted, and the mode of management moſt proper and natural for them, according to their ſeveral ſoils and ſituations; there is at preſent no great reaſon to apprehend that any ſuch ſcarcity of underwood or timber can happen, as will make the want thereof alarming; and as to the advance in the price of underwood and timber, ſo much talked of by all perſons, and ſo much dreaded by many; — a moment's conſideration will convince them, that no laws that could be made for the preſervation of woods would ſo effectually contribute thereto, as the idea that the land ſo applied will pay as well or better than in any other ſtate of cultivation. And as the value of both arable and paſture land in this kingdom, has been regularly on the increaſe for many years paſt, and is ſtill increaſing, it is neceſſary that the price of underwood and timber ſhould increaſe in the ſame proportion; and ſo far from being alarmed at the advance in the price of the productions of woods, we ſhould conſider that this very advance is the beſt ſecurity we can have for their preſervation.' Vol. vii. P. 20.

Mr. Wimpey's obſervations reſpecting timber are not without merit.

Mr. South's apprehenſions of the decreaſe of naval timber ariſe from local circumſtances. We believe, however, that it has decreaſed; not indeed from our author's arguments, which are far from being ſolid, but from more extenſive views and information: yet the diminution is not, we think, ſo great as to be alarming.

Mr. Turner, in his remarks on the American buffalo, re-

commends it as ſuperior to the ox in ſtrength and agility. This animal is gregarious, docile, alert, and ſurpriſingly ſtrong. His fleſh is good; the boſs and tongue are highly valuable; and his horns are of great beauty and utility. Malleable copper; a metal reſembling block-tin (perhaps ſilver); lead; black-lead; ſome ſilver; iron, ſalt, coal, and ſulphur; are among the more uſeful mineral productions of America, mentioned by this writer.

The method of making Parmeſan cheeſe has been often deſcribed in recent works. It is ſhortly related by Mr. Pryce.

Extracts from a general view of the agriculture of Dorſet, Wilts, and Gloceſterſhire, by Meſſrs. Claridge, Davis and Turner, reſpectively, are inſerted in this volume. Theſe are ſupplied from the ſurveys made by order of the board of agriculture, and are valuable additions to the work. The ſubjects, however, are too minute, and too ſtrictly local, to render it either convenient or expedient for us to enlarge on them. *Abridgments* of *extracts* would be truly ſhadows of a ſhade.

Sir Mordaunt Martin's account of the properties and uſes of the mangel-wurtzel might well have been ſpared. We have long ſince been ſatiated with the ſubject. This gentleman's remarks on the culture of field potatoes are more uſeful. Yet his method has many obvious inconveniencies. His plan for meliorating the laws which concern the poor, contains the principles of ſome excellent regulations.

Dr. Fothergill's obſervations on the abuſe of ſpirituous liquors have long ſince appeared * in another collection.

Some correſpondence which occurred in a provincial newspaper, on the ſubject of burnt corn, follows. A ſelection would have been preferable. The burnt ears are brought into that ſtate by the ova of an inſect, which are, in due time, animated, and deſtroy the ſeed; but, as in all ſimilar circumſtances, the plant muſt be weakened to admit the impreſſion. The firſt principle is to keep the land in heart; and perhaps this would be nearly ſufficient. Preparing the ſeed with lime, &c. is ſtrongly recommended by the reſult of experiments which have been lately made.

Mr. Pew's article on the conſtruction of reſervoirs to preſerve the fluids from ſtables, &c. is highly uſeful, but unintelligible without the plate.

Mr. Davis's exhortations to land-holders, to build comfortable cottages for the poor, do credit to his humanity and judgment.

Mr. Pew's plan for the prevention of poverty is an extenſion of that of the friendly ſocieties; but every one is to contribute; and we fear the compulſion will make that intolerable, which, when voluntary, is often eaſily and cheerfully borne.

Mr. Cloſe thinks, that cattle will fatten ſooner on potatoes,

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XX. p. 115.

than on cabbages or turneps. It is remarkable, that 190 out of 200 ſheep devoured them greedily, while 10 would not touch them. Mr. Cloſe is an advocate for the drill huſbandry, with horſe-hoeing.

Sir Thomas Beevor communicates a table ſhowing the value of lands, according to different prices of ſtock; but theſe concluſions are contradicted by the preſent prices. Mr. Pugh recommends the horſe and ſweet cheſnut and the black willow as highly valuable in plantations. Mr. South deſcribes the method employed in reclaiming a ſnipe bog, by which its value was augmented from 7 to 30 ſhillings annually. Mr. Tugwell's improved pedometer we cannot deſcribe, intelligibly, without the plate.

Mr. Broughton's three papers on the turnep cabbage are deſigned to reſcue this uſeful vegetable from the neglect into which it was falling. He found it not only a delicacy for the table, but fodder highly nutritious, and thriving well on land dry, barren, and exhauſted. On trial, it was eaſily preſerved at ſea; and one vegetated, even after arriving at Jamaica.

Mr. Chapple's method of avoiding the curl in his potatoes appears to be judicious; but his account is too long, and not ſufficiently intereſting, for an extract.

The laſt paper, by Mr. Billingſley, contains the event of an experiment made to aſcertain which breed of ſheep was moſt profitable. The ſubjects of the experiment, and the order in which the greateſt advances were made, are the following. The South-down and Mendip were nearly equal; the Dorſet, Gloceſter, Leiceſter, and Wilts followed; each more profitable than the kind which ſucceeded. The volume terminates with a copious index to the whole body of the tranſactions of the ſociety.

An Account of the Campaign in the Weſt-Indies, in the Year 1794, *under the Command of their Excellencies Lieutenant General Sir Charles Grey, K. B. and Vice Admiral Sir John Jervis, K. B. Commanders in Chief in the Weſt-Indies; with the Reduction of the Iſlands of Martinique, St. Lucia, Guadaloupe, Marigalante, Deſiada, &c. and the Events that followed thoſe unparalleled Succeſſes and cauſed the Loſs of Guadaloupe. By the Rev. Cooper Willyams, A. M. Vicar of Exning, Suffolk, and late Chaplain to His Majeſty's Ship Boyne.* 4*to.* 2*l.* 5*s. Boards.* Nicol.

THE campaign, of which a detail is here given, was highly honourable to the courage of our countrymen, and to the zeal and ability of the aſſociated commanders; but, though it was attended, in the earlier part, with ſignal ſucceſs, ſome changes of fortune occurred, the effects of which are ſtill felt;

and to the calamities of war, a ſcourge ſufficiently dreadful in itſelf, the ravages of an infectious diſeaſe were added.

The ſituation of Mr. Willyams gave him opportunities of witneſſing ſome of the incidents which he relates, and of procuring authentic information with regard to others; and, as we have no reaſon to ſuſpect him of wilful partiality or intentional miſrepreſentation, we may conclude that his production affords an accurate account of a memorable campaign.

When the Britiſh armament reached Barbadoes, the commanders received unpleaſing intelligence of the havock which the yellow fever had made in that and the neighbouring iſlands; but it was intimated, at the ſame time, that 'the diſeaſe had entirely ſubſided;' whence hopes were raiſed that proved fallacious.

The firſt object of ſir Charles Grey was the conqueſt of Martinique, on which iſland he landed with his army in February, 1794. He planned three attacks upon different parts of the iſland, to be executed at the ſame time; and they were all ſucceſsful. After accounts of various operations, the circumſtances which attended the reduction of the town of St. Pierre are thus related:

'The veſſels with troops and ſeamen on board were under a croſs fire from two batteries of red hot ſhot, which happily did them no damage, though they fell round and near them. Captain Harvey in the Santa Margarita, perceiving the troops were likely to be much annoyed, went cloſe under the guns of the moſt conſiderable of the two batteries, which he ſilenced; and about four in the morning of the 17th, the troops and ſeamen made good their landing, and found that the enemy had left the other battery. During the night, the Veſuvius bomb did much execution with her ſhells, many of them falling in the town, to which it ſet fire in ſome places: the fire, however, was ſoon extinguiſhed. The batteries in the town, and on the adjacent hills, kept up a conſtant fire of ſhot and ſhells on the men of war, as they advanced towards the town, which was returned with great ſpirit. The Santa Margarita was ſtruck with a ſhell, which fortunately neither fired her, nor did any conſiderable damage.

'Colonel Symes, on landing, advanced with the troops towards St. Pierre, which the enemy evacuated on his approach, leaving their guns primed and loaded, and their colours flying, which were hauled down by our people, and the Britiſh union hoiſted. About ten, the whole of the troops and ſeamen had marched into the town. No man was ſuffered to quit his ranks, nor was the leaſt injury done to any of the inhabitants, who, with the women and children, ſat at their doors and windows to ſee our army march in, the ſame as when troops paſs through a town in England. While our men were drawn up in the market-place, a flag of truce came in from general Dundas, who, with his army, was on the hills near the town, and was on his march to attack it. This flag was in

anſwer to one ſent by the enemy to him, offering to capitulate. The officer who brought the flag was agreeably ſurpriſed to find, on his entering the town, that it was already in the poſſeſſion of his countrymen.' P. 41.

A part of the deſcription of the town we will alſo extract.

'St. Pierre is a long handſome town, ſituated on the ſhore of an open bay, and flanked by a ſtrong battery at either end; alſo defended by two redoubts on the hills which overhang the town. The ſurrounding country riſes in a ſucceſſion of hills beautifully variegated with woods and ſugar plantations; and near the town are ſome fine gardens, which, before the revolution, had been kept up in a ſuperior ſtyle of elegance and convenience. Each ſtreet of this beautiful town is watered by a clear ſtream from the mountains, running rapidly down the middle, which adds greatly to the health as well as convenience of the place. The ſtreets in general are narrow and rough paved, but very regular; the houſes are built of a fine ſtone like free-ſtone, the lower apartments of which were in general handſomely, and ſometimes ſuperbly, furniſhed.' P. 43.

After the attack of the French camp at Sourier, which, Mr. Willyams thinks, was one of the beſt-conducted enterpriſes of the campaign, the forts Bourbon and Louis, and Fort-Royal, the capital of the iſland, were completely inveſted. Fort-Louis was taken by ſtorm, chiefly in conſequence of the ſpirited exertions of captain Faulknor. This officer, who commanded the Zebra ſloop,

'boldly puſhed in towards that fort, ſtill reſerving his fire till he came cloſe to the walls of it; and then running his ſhip aground, plying his ſmall arms and great guns, he drove the enemy from thence, and, leaping into a boat, ſcaled the ramparts. Seeing the Zebra go in, all the boats with ſcaling ladders, attended by the gun-boats, ſeemed to fly towards the ſcene of action. Thoſe from point Carriere mounted the walls, near where captain Faulknor had ſo gallantly run his ſhip, and, ſeconding him, drove the enemy out of the fort, hauled down the republican flag, and hoiſted the Britiſh union in its ſtead. The ſtorming party of ſeamen, from the camp at point Negro, under captain Rogers, landed at the town of Fort Royal, of which they ſoon took poſſeſſion.' P. 67.

Fort-Bourbon was ſoon after reduced; and thus (ſays our narrator)

'one of the moſt valuable of the French iſlands in the Weſt-Indies was added to the Britiſh dominions, poſſeſſing (beſides great revenues and prodigious ſources of wealth) one of the fineſt harbours in the world, in which the whole Britiſh fleet might ſafely anchor.' P. 70.

Having made an eaſy conqueſt of St. Lucia, the fleet and army haſtened to Guadaloupe. Fort Fleur-d'Epée, on this iſland, was ſoon taken by ſtorm. When Mr. Willyams went

on ſhore to 'pay the laſt honours' to his countrymen who fell on this occaſion, the ſcene (he ſays) 'ſurpaſſed his powers of deſcription.'

'It was early in the morning, ſoon after the action was over. At the foot of the hill lay ſeveral of our ſeamen badly wounded, waiting to be carried on board their reſpective ſhips: a little farther, under the tall trees that grew within a few yards of the ſea, ſeveral naval officers, repoſing after the fatigues of the morning, and their men not far from them. As we went up the hill, we met ſome of the wounded priſoners brought in by our people; and, at the gates of the fort was an heap of the ſlain, who had all died by the ſword or bayonet. Within the fort the deſtruction appeared more dreadful, being more confined: a multitude of miſerable wretches expiring of their wounds, and many of our own people in the ſame ſituation: in the midſt of this was his excellency, writing his diſpatches on a table, on which, fatigued with the action, an artillery man was ſleeping, whom the general would by no means have diſturbed; one proof, among thouſands, that the trueſt heroiſm may be, and often is, united to the greateſt humanity.' P. 91.

We are induced to extract more from this work than we otherwiſe ſhould have done, as, in our Review of Public Affairs for the year 1794, we merely gave a general account of the tranſactions of the war in the Weſt-Indies.

Our author thus recounts the ſucceſs of an attack upon a chain of batteries near the town of Baſſe-Terre.

'The grenadiers were commanded by prince Edward, and the light infantry by lieutenant-colonel Coote. At five in the morning, the attack commenced, by the light infantry advancing to the aſſault of the higheſt and moſt formidable battery, which, though well defended by nature and art, was ſoon obliged to yield to the ſuperior activity and bravery of our troops, who with their bayonets forced the works, putting thirty of them to death. It is remarkable, that in this affair the three firſt ſentries at the advanced batteries, on firing their muſkets on the alarm, ſhot two advanced men of the light infantry, and their guide. The inſtant our men had made themſelves maſters of this poſt, perceiving that it commanded all the others, they, with infinite ſpirit and addreſs, turned the guns againſt them, under cover of which our troops marched up, and took them all in ſucceſſion, without much further oppoſition, although, by every appearance, they had determined to make a vigorous reſiſtance.' P. 96.

This exploit intimidated the enemy into a ſurrender of the remaining portion of Guadaloupe. That conqueſt, however, was not long retained.

The writer vindicates ſir Charles Grey and the admiral from the charge of extortion, alleged to have been committed in the

conquered iſlands; and he denies that the loſs of Guadaloupe was occaſioned or promoted (as it has been 'maliciouſly' ſuppoſed) by the 'oppreſſion and peculations' of thoſe commanders. He attributes the loſs to the original paucity of troops, and to the ravages of the yellow fever. A body of French landed when ſickneſs had almoſt diſabled the late conquerors of the iſland, aſſaulted fort Fleur-d'Epée with ſucceſs, and ſeiſed other poſts. While ſome of the Engliſh were erecting batteries for the recovery of that fortreſs, another party attacked the poſt of St. Anne, and forced it without difficulty, killing about 400 of the enemy. As this ſlaughter was not attended with the death of a ſingle man among the aſſailants, and only one of their number received a wound, it appears to have been a *maſſacre* conſequent on a ſurpriſal; and, whether it reflects any honour on our countrymen, we leave to the deciſion of our humane readers.

After ſome ſpirited actions, the general formed a plan which, he hoped, would enable him to regain all the poſts taken by the French in their recent invaſion of Guadaloupe.

'The plan he had laid down was, for a large body of troops under general Symes to march during the night, and make themſelves maſters of Morne Government, and the other commanding heights round the town of Point à Pitre, whilſt himſelf, at the head of the reſt of his army, was in readineſs on the heights of Maſcot to ſtorm fort Fleur d'Epée, on receiving a ſignal from general Symes; but, from ſome unfortunate miſapprehenſion, the whole of general Grey's well-concerted plan was abortive, and the almoſt total deſtruction of our exhauſted forces enſued: but it is my buſineſs to detail the events of this unfortunate affair as accurately as the confuſed accounts I have received will permit. Brigadier-general Symes, having under his command the firſt battalion of grenadiers, commanded by brigadier-general Fiſher, and the firſt and ſecond light infantry, led by colonel Gomm, with a detachment of ſeamen from the Boyne and Veteran, commanded by captain Robertſon of the Veteran, marched from the heights of Maſcot at about nine o'clock at night, on the firſt of July. They firſt deſcended into a deep ravine, thick planted with coffee-buſhes, through which there was no road, the ſeamen bringing up the rear. The night was uncommonly dark, which rendered their march both dangerous and fatiguing. After proceeding about a mile, they halted on a road, and were joined by two ſmall field-pieces, which were put under the charge of lieutenants Thomſon and Maitland, to be dragged by their ſeamen. During the halt, ſome people, who were heard to ſpeak French, were ſeen near the rear; lieutenant Wolley endeavoured to ſecure them, but they eſcaped through the buſhes; and no further notice was taken of this. The army moved forward about two miles further, on a road leading through

deep ravines, and made a ſecond halt for about an hour: the march was then re-commenced, but no orders ever paſſed during the time. They now proceeded for ſome miles without meeting with any obſtruction; when an order came for the ſeamen in the rear to advance to the attack, which they did by running as faſt as they could for upwards of a mile. The parties they paſſed were not in the beſt order, owing to the quickneſs of the march, until they came to the grenadiers, who were drawn up as a *corps de reſerve*. About this time the bugle horn ſounded to advance, and ſoon after, a heavy firing of round and grape-ſhot from Morne Government, and alſo from ſeveral other batteries of the enemy, commenced; as alſo from ſome twelve-pounders landed from the ſhipping in the harbour, which were placed in tiers, and entirely enfiladed the road along which the troops were advancing. After paſſing the grenadiers, the ſeamen were halted for a few minutes to form, they being perfectly out of order from running; but ſcarce thirty of them were got together, when lieutenant Wolley was ordered to advance with them, and captain Robertſon remained to form and bring up the reſt. The cannonading from the enemy's guns was the moſt ſevere the oldeſt ſoldier ever witneſſed, eſpecially from the guns which were on the road, two or three tiers of which were planted behind each other, from which the enemy were driven by the bayonets of our gallant fellows, who no ſooner had taken one battery, but another opened on them from behind. The whole now became a ſcene of confuſion impoſſible to deſcribe. Inſtead of any of the heights being attempted, the greater part of the troops and the ſeamen were got into the town, where they were mowed down by the grape-ſhot, which played upon them in every direction, as well as muſquetry from the windows of the houſes. Wherever our men perceived this, they broke open the doors, putting all they found in them to death; and thoſe who could not ſtand the bayonet were ſhot as they leaped from the windows. General Symes was by this time badly wounded, and his horſe killed under him. Colonel Gomm (who led the light infantry), with ſeveral other officers, was killed, and a great many more deſperately wounded; and captain Robertſon, who commanded the ſeamen, was blown up. At length general Fiſher (the ſecond in command, who, as well as every other officer on this ſervice, was ignorant of general Symes's plans) ſounded a retreat.' P. 122.

In the mean time, the ſickneſs increaſed among the troops; and, for ſome weeks, nothing memorable occurred. At length, on the 29th of September, the republicans attacked the camp of the Engliſh at Berville; and other aſſaults were made, to the great loſs of the enemy; but the defenders of the camp were ultimately obliged to capitulate. The French not ſuffering the royaliſts to be included in the favourable agree-

ment, 300 of them are ſaid to have been guillotined, or otherwiſe put to death.

The chief occurrences of the ſiege of fort Matilda, and the death of captain Faulknor in a naval engagement, cloſe the narrative. The ſiege was continued by Victor Hughes above eight weeks; and general Preſcot then eſcaped with the garriſon from the fort and the iſland. A few words reſpecting Hughes (or Hugues) may not improperly be here introduced.

'Victor Hughes was originally a petty inn-keeper at Baſſe Terre, Guadaloupe; from whence he was driven for ſome miſdemeanor, and became maſter of a ſmall trading veſſel at St. Domingo; then a lieutenant in the French navy; and afterwards a deputy in the national aſſembly: from whence, he came out to the Weſt Indies as commiſſioner, with controlling powers over the commanders of the army and navy. His abilities were certainly good; his courage and perſeverance undoubted; but, from the ferocity of his character, he was both feared and hated.' P. 148.

This publication is not only calculated to inform and amuſe the general reader, but may be uſefully added to that fund of materials, which future hiſtorians of the preſent reign will find it neceſſary to conſult.

He's much to blame, a Comedy: in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. 8*vo.* 2*s.* Robinſons. 1798.

THE unknown author of this piece acknowledges that he is in a ſmall degree indebted to *Le Complaiſant*, a French comedy, and to Goethe's tragedy of Clavigo. So little of a foreign caſt, however, appears in the conſtruction of it, that it may be deemed legitimate Engliſh; and it certainly is, in ſome reſpects, ſuperior to moſt of our modern comedies.

The fable may be underſtood from the following outline. Lord Vibrate, a nobleman of a heſitating undetermined character, has promiſed his daughter lady Jane to Mr. Delaval, a man of honour, who is the object of her love. Lady Vibrate, however, a common woman of faſhion, perſuades her huſband to beſtow the young lady on Sir George Verſatile, a lively man of faſhion, who was protected in his youth by Delaval's father, and who then engaged the affections of miſs Delaval, but deſerted her when the acceſſion of a fortune and title threw him upon the great world. He is charmed with lady Jane, and ſolicits her hand. The unhappy miſs Delaval, in the mean time, aſſumes the male attire, and, viſiting London in purſuit of her lover, accidentally meets the Vibrate family at an hotel. Her brother arrives at the ſame houſe, with a reſolution of

avenging the insult received by his sister. Some very interesting scenes are here managed with great dexterity. Sir George is awakened to a sense of his misconduct, by an interview with miss Delaval at a masquerade; and all his affection revives. Her brother, however, hitherto unknown to him, had sent him a challenge, and, at the time appointed, remains disguised until he has given a striking picture of Sir George's early life, his obligations to the Delaval family, and the ingratitude with which he repaid them. The concessions which Sir George makes, soften the resentment of Delaval: a reconciliation takes place; and the piece ends with the marriage of sir George and miss Delaval, and of Mr. Delaval and lady Jane.

As a fair specimen of this comedy, we extract the following scene between sir George Versatile and Mr. Delaval.

'*Sir G.* Good morning, sir!

'*Del.* You recollect me?

'*Sir G.* Perfectly.

'*Del.* 'Tis well.

'*Sir G.* I have been anxious for your coming. Your menace lives in my memory; and I shall be glad to know the name of him who has threatened such mortal enmity.

'*Del.* A little patience will be necessary. I must preface my proceedings with a short story.

'*Sir G.* I shall be all attention. Please to be seated. Wave ceremony, and to the subject. (*They sit.*) Now, sir.

'*Del.* About six years ago, a certain youth came up from college; poor, and unprotected. He was a scholar, pleasing in manner, warm and generous of temper, of a respectable family, and seemed to possess the germ of every virtue.

'*Sir G.* Well, sir.

'*Del.* Hear me on: my praises will not be tedious. Chance made him known to a man who desired to cherish his good qualities; and the purse, the experience, and the power of his benefactor, such as they were, he profited by to the utmost. Received as a son, he soon became dear to the family; but most dear to the daughter of his friend, whose tender age and glowing affections made her apt to admire the virtues she heard her father so ardently praise, and encourage. You are uneasy?

'*Sir G.* Be pleased to continue.

'*Del.* The assiduities of the youth to gain her heart were unabating; and his pretensions, poor and unknown as he then was, were not rejected. The noble nature of his friend scorned to make his poverty his crime. Why do you bite your lip? Was it not generous?

'*Sir G.* Sir!

'*Del.* (*firmly.*) Was it not?

'*Sir G.* Certainly! Nothing could—equal the—generosity.

'*Del.* The health of his benefactor was declining fast; and the only thing required of the youth was that he should qualify himself for the cares of life, by some profession. He therefore entered

a ſtudent in the Temple; and the means were furniſhed by his protector, till the end was obtained. Was not this friendſhip?

'*Sir G.* It was.

'*Del.* The lady, almoſt a child when firſt he knew her, increaſed in grace and beauty faſter than in years. Sweetneſs and ſmiles played upon her countenance. She was the delight of her friends, the admiration of the world, and the coveted of every eye. Lovers of fortune and faſhion contended for her hand; but ſhe had beſtowed her heart—had beſtowed it on a—Sit ſtill, ſir; I ſhall ſoon have done. I am coming to the point. Five years elapſed; during which the youth received every kindneſs friendſhip could afford, and every proof chaſte affection had to give. Theſe he returned with promiſes and proteſtations that ſeemed too vaſt for his heart. I would ſay for his tongue.—Are you unwell, ſir?

'*Sir G.* Go on with your tale.

'*Del.* His benefactor, feeling the hand of death ſteal on, was anxious to ſee the two perſons deareſt to his heart happy before he expired; and the marriage was determined on, the day fixed, and the friends of the family invited. The intended bridegroom appeared half frantic with his approaching bliſs. Now, ſir, mark his proceeding. In this ſhort interval, by ſudden and unexpected deaths, he becomes the heir to a title and large eſtate. Well! Does he not fly to the arms of his languiſhing friend? Does he not pour his new treaſures and his tranſports into the lap of love? Coward and monſter!

'*Sir G.* (*both ſtarting up*) Sir!

'*Del.* Viler than words can paint! Having robbed a family of honour, a friend of peace, and an angel of every human ſolace, he fled, like a thief, and concealed himſelf from immediate contempt and vengeance in a foreign country. But contempt and vengeance have at length overtaken him: they beſet him: they face him at this inſtant. The friend he wronged is dead: but the ſon of that friend lives, and I am he.

'*Sir G.* 'Tis as I thought!

'*Del.* You are—I will not defile my lips by telling you what you are.

'*Sir G.* I own that what I have done—

'*Del.* Forbear to interrupt me, ſir. You have nothing to plead, and much to hear. Firſt ſay, did my ſiſter, by any improper conduct, levity of behaviour, or fault or vice whatever, give you juſt cauſe to abandon her?

'*Sir G.* None! None! Her purity is only exceeded by her love.

'*Del.* Then how, barbarian, how had you the heart to diſgrace the family and endanger the life of a woman whoſe ſanctified affection would have embraced you in poverty, peſtilence, or death; and who, had ſhe poſſeſſed empires, would have beſtowed them with an imperial affection?

'*Sir G.* Sir, if you aſk, Have I committed errors? call them crimes if you will, Yes. If you demand, Will I juſtify them? No. If you require me to atone for them, here is my heart: you have

wrongs to revenge, ſtrike; and, if you can, inflict a pang greater than any it yet has known.

'*Del.* Juſtice is not to be diſarmed by being braved. To the queſtion. It can be no part of your intention, and certainly not of mine, that you ſhould marry my ſiſter. Something very different muſt be done.

'*Sir G.* What? Name it!

'*Del.* You muſt give me an acknowledgment, written and ſigned by yourſelf, that you have baſely and moſt diſhonourably injured, inſulted, and betrayed, Maria Delaval: and this paper, immediately as I leave your houſe, I ſhall publiſh in every poſſible way; till my ſiſter ſhall be ſo appeaſed, and honour ſo ſatiated, that vengeance itſelf ſhall cry, Hold!

'*Sir G.* Written by me! Publiſhed! No. I will ſign no ſuch paper.

'*Del.* So I ſuppoſed; and the alternative follows. Here I am; nor will I quit you, go where you will, till you ſhall conſent to retire with me to ſome place from which one of us muſt never return. Should I be the victor, flight, baniſhment from my native country, and the bitterеſt recollections of the villanies of man, muſt be the fate of me and my ſiſter. If I fall, you then may triumph, and ſhe languiſh and die unrevenged. This, or the written acknowledgment. Conſider, and chuſe.

'*Sir G.* What can I anſwer? The paper you ſhall not have. My life you are welcome to: take it.

'*Del.* Have you not brought diſgrace enough on my family? Would you make me an aſſaſſin? My ſiſter and my father loved you. Let me, if poſſible, feel ſome little return of reſpect for you.

'*Sir G.* Having wronged the ſiſter, would you have me murder the brother? Already the moſt guilty of men, would you make me the worſt of fiends? Though an enemy, be a generous one.

'*Del.* Plauſible ſophiſt! The paper, ſir; or, man to man, and arm to arm, cloſe the ſcene of my diſhonour, or your own. The written acknowledgment. Determine. (*Walks away, and views the pictures.*)

'*Sir G.* (*Apart.*) Why, ay! 'Tis come home! I have ſought it, deſerved it, 'tis fallen, and the rock muſt cruſh the reptile!—Then welcome ruin. The ſword muſt decide. (*Goes to take his ſword, but ſtops.*) The ſword? What! Betray the ſiſter, and aſſaſſinate the brother? Oh God! And ſuch a brother! Stern, but noble-minded: indignant of injury, peerleſs in affection, and proud of a ſiſter whom the world might worſhip; but whom I, worthleſs wretch, in levity and pride of heart, have abandoned. (*Aloud.*) Mr. Delaval!

'*Del.* Have you reſolved to ſign?

'*Sir G.* Hear me.

'*Del.* The written acknowledgment!

'*Sir G.* My behaviour to your ſiſter is — what I cannot endure to name — 'tis hateful! 'Tis — infamous! My obligations to your moſt excellent father, the reſpect you have inſpired me with, and my love for Maria —

'*Del.* Inſolent! Inſufferable meanneſs! The paper, ſir!

'*Sir G.* Angry though you are, Mr. Delaval, your muſt hear me. I ſay, my love, my adoration of Maria, has but increaſed my guilt. It has made me dread her contempt. I durſt not face the angel whom I had ſo deeply injured.

'*Del.* Artifice! evaſion! cowardice!—Your ſignature!

'*Sir G.* (*ſnatching up his ſword from the table.*) You ſhall have it. Follow me.

'*Del.* Fear me not.

'*Sir G.* (*ſtopping ſhort*). Hold, Mr. Delaval. Juſtice is on your ſide. If your firmneſs be not a ſavage ſpirit of revenge, if you do not thirſt for blood, you will feel my only reſource will be to fall on your ſword. I cannot lift my arm againſt you.

'*Del.* Then ſign the acknowledgment.

'*Sir G.* Can you in the ſpirit even of an enemy aſk it? Do you not already deſpiſe me enough? Think for a moment: am I the only man that ever erred? Is it ſo wonderful that a giddy youth, whoſe habitual failing was compliance, by ſudden accident elevated to the pinnacle of fortune, ſurrounded by proud and ſelfiſh relations of whoſe approbation I was vain, is it ſo ſtrange that I ſhould be overpowered by their dictates, and yield to their intreaties? Your friendſhip or my death is now the only alternative. Suppoſe the latter: will it honour you among men? At the man of blood the heart of man revolts! Will it endear you to Maria? Kind forgiving angel, and hateful to myſelf as her affection makes me, I laſt night found that affection ſtill as ſtrong, ſtill as pure, as in the firſt hour of our infant loves. Lady Jane—

'*Del.* Forbear to name her! 'Tis profanation from your lips! No more caſuiſtry! No ſubterfuge! The paper!

'*Sir G.* Can no motives—

'*Del.* None!

'*Sir G.* My future life, my ſoul, ſhall be devoted to Maria.

'*Del.* The paper!

'*Sir G.* Obdurate man! (*Reflects a moment.*) You ſhall have it. (*Goes to the table to write, during which Delaval remains deep in thought and much agitated.*) Here, ſir! ſince *you* will not be generous, let *me* be juſt. 'Tis proper I remove every taint of ſuſpicion from the deeply-wronged Maria.

'*Del.* (*Reads with a faltering voice.*) "I George Verſatile, once poor and dependent, ſince vain, fickle, and faithleſs, do under my hand acknowledge I have perfidiouſly—broken my pledged promiſe—to the moſt deſerving—lovely—and—(*Begins in much agitation to tear the paper.*)

'*Sir G.* Mr. Delaval?

'*Del.* Damn it—I can't—I can't ſpeak. Here! here! (*Striking his boſom.*)

'*Sir G.* Mr. Delaval?

'*Del.* My brother!

'*Sir G.* (*Falls on his neck*) Can it be? My friend!

'*Del.* This ſtubborn temper—always in extremes! The tiger, or the child.

'*Sir G.* Oh no! 'Twas not to be forgiven! Beſt of men!

'*Del.* Well, well: we are friends.
'*Sir G.* Everlaſtingly! Brothers!
'*Del.* Yes; brothers.' P. 82.

In this production there is much to commend. It exhibits a faithful picture of ſome of the more intricate operations of the mind in ſituations of delicacy and embarraſſment; and the characters, if we except that of Sir George, are well preſerved. In him there appears ſome inconſiſtency; either his crime is too ſudden, or his repentance may be mentioned in that light: but the buſineſs of a comedy does not perhaps allow of the more leiſurely movements of character. The dialogue is lively, and free from the puns and quibbles which have lately been miſtaken for wit, and have reduced the ſtage to a rivalſhip with Bartholomew fair. The character of Dr. Goſterman, a fawning quack, is introduced with a happy effect; and his language is better adapted to people of 'his way,' than we generally find in imitations of foreign languages.—Upon the whole, this is a comedy which, in a purer ſtate of theatrical exhibition, would have been abundantly ſucceſsful, and which, even now, will be read with pleaſure, where-ever the dramatic taſte has not been totally depraved.

An Account of the different Kinds of Sheep found in the Ruſſian Dominions, and among the Tartar Hordes of Aſia: by Dr. Pallas. Illuſtrated with ſix Plates. To which is added, five Appendixes tending to illuſtrate the natural and economical Hiſtory of Sheep and other domeſtic Animals. By James Anderſon, LL.D. &c. 8vo. 5s. Sewed. Chapman.

FREQUENT diſputes have occurred with regard to the parent country of many objects of neceſſity and luxury: but the ſheep is, with little doubt, referred to the fertile plains of Aſia; and the original ſpecies is the muſimon of Pliny, the argali of the Aſiatics, an animal approaching more nearly, in appearance, to the goat than the domeſticated ſheep. The argali is indeed, in manners and habit, of the goat kind. It lives on bare rocks: its food conſiſts of the ſmall Alpine plants; and its chief delight is an unclouded ſun. The parent ſpecies of goat is found alſo in theſe regions; and the diſtinction is ſufficiently obvious from the horns, and other circumſtances.

The argali is found even ſo high as the 60th degree of north latitude; and we know that it will bear a tropical ſun. One of its varieties, however, (the ſteatopyga, or fat-tailed ſheep) is found in a more extenſive range, though not in climates of ſuch different temperatures. The peculiarity of this animal conſiſts in two protuberances of fat on the rump, and not in any fat appendage to which we annex the idea of a

tail. Theſe protuberances are certainly a diſtinguiſhing form of the race, like the fat excreſcence on the back of a biſon; and it is an idle fancy, that they are produced by any particular food. The food indeed, beſt adapted to the conſtitution of the animal, will contribute to its perfection in every reſpect; and, when ſheep enjoy it in abundance; theſe parts will increaſe as well as the fatty ſubſtance in other cavities. A ſimilar confuſion occurs in the author's idea of ſheep purging themſelves by eating plants of the anemonoid kind. In fact, theſe are the earlieſt vegetables of the plains of Aſia, and are greedily devoured by the ſheep. The conſequence is undoubtedly a ſalutary evacuation; but the inſtinct is the general one for freſh vegetable food. Similar circumſtances gave our earlieſt ſpring herbs the character of anti-ſcorbutic.

On the varieties we cannot enlarge; yet we muſt expreſs our wiſh, that this memoir, tranſlated in part from the Faſciculus Undecimus of Pallas, had been extended from the ſame author. Many facts and remarks of importance are, we perceive, omitted. The beauty of the fleeces of the very young Tſcherkeſſian lambs renders them highly valuable. The wool hangs in light flowing ringlets; and, by art, the delicacy is preſerved in a more advanced age. Some natural, as well as accidental, variations are alſo noticed. Whether food will change, as Pallas ſuppoſes, the colour of hair or wool, Dr. Anderſon is in ſome doubt. He ſeems willing to reject the opinion, though the effects of madder excluſively on the colour of the bones, render it at leaſt not impoſſible, that ſome food or particular impregnations of water may act wholly on the hair. Of theſe effects, however, there is not the ſlighteſt evidence; and, if any fact of this kind has been noticed, the food muſt be ſuppoſed to act very remotely. If it is only found in the thickeſt parts of a foreſt, where, during the time of feeding, light is in a great degree excluded, the animal, while in ſearch of it, may have the ſhades of its coat rendered much lighter. If this has happened in a hazel grove, the omenta of the nuts may have been given to imitate it in other regions. The idea of blue ſheep ſeems to have ariſen from the uſe of the word *cæruleus* by Boëthius; but, in ancient authors, the meaning of this word is extremely vague. Virgil even gives it as an epithet to *imber*; and every dark colour, which contained a glow from the admixture of a brighter, ſeems to have had, at times, this epithet. Flocks of all the varieties of grey are common; but the hue ariſes from the mixture of black and white.—The yellow flocks ſeem to have owed their exiſtence to a ſimilar miſtake, the golden locks of the Latin poets. We ſhall ſelect the concluſions from the obſervations of Dr. Pallas:

'1ſt. That there is but one ſpecies of ſheep, divided into a cer-

tain number of varieties, diſtinguiſhed principally by the tail; as the doctor has found that all the different ſpecies mentioned by authors propagate together and produce prolific deſcendants; which refutes all idea of a ſpecific difference.

'With regard to Wool.

'2dly, That the firſt variety of Pallas, the Tſcherkeſſian or long tailed, are the beſt wool bearing ſheep, carrying naturally a woolly fleece without admixture of hair in all countries where it has been found; except always in the extremes of heat and cold, which turn wool to hair in every variety of the animal.

'3dly, That next to the Tſcherkeſſian, the mixed breed he has named Boucharian, promiſes the greateſt advantages with regard to fleece, if managed with ſkill and attention by the able and induſtrious Europeans.

'This variety, the 4th and laſt of our author, is diſtinguiſhed by a tail, thick and fat above, but long and lean below.

'4thly, That the Ruſſian ſheep which conſtitutes his 2d. variety, diſtinguiſhed by a ſhort meagre tail, are a ſmall breed carrying wool of the very coarſeſt kind, only fit for the dreſs of the northern peaſants in a ſtate of vaſſalage; although climate, care, and paſture, ſeem to meliorate it very conſiderably.

'5thly, That the large fat rumped, or fat tailed ſheep, the variety reared from the frontiers of Europe, to thoſe of China, by almoſt all the paſtoral nations, and the whole of the Nomades; and that which ſeems to be the moſt univerſally reared over the whole globe, as an article of food, from its ſize and fatneſs, ranks the loweſt with regard to fleece; as it carries only a ſpecies of coarſe wool mixed with hair, in all countries where it has been found: and even that very inferior fleece is ſo matted together, as to be with difficulty carded, if at all capable of that operation. However that laſt circumſtance obſerved by Dr. Pallas in the Kirguiſe ſheep, may be owing to ſome local cauſe.

'6thly, That a temperate climate is the moſt favourable for the production of wool; as extremes of both heat and cold have a tendency to convert it into hair, or at leaſt into a ſpecies of wool ſo extremely coarſe, as not to be eaſily diſtinguiſhed from it.

'8thly, That ſaline bitter paſtures, have great influence in augmenting the ſize of ſheep, as well as in fattening them; at the ſame time that ſuch paſtures have a particular tendency to produce the ſpecies of ſoft oily greaſe, which forms more eſpecially on the rump and tail of the ſteatopyga variety of ſheep, and is different from ſuet, the kind of fat common to ruminating animals.

'9thly, That leguminous Alpine plants, eſpecially the aſtragali, and a ſhrub reſembling the robinia caragana, when aided by a temperate climate and exerciſe, have a tendency to produce the largeſt ſized domeſtic ſheep the doctor ſaw in his travels, even equal to the muſimon or wild ſheep, which lives and feeds like the

flocks of the hills of Dauria, that reſemble it ſo much in bulk: but that theſe plants have no tendency to form the ſoft oily fat mentioned above, which the doctor thinks is only produced by ſaline bitter paſtures.

'10thly, That much depends on the care and ſkill of the ſhepherd, to meliorate the fleece, augment the ſize, and correct the form of ſheep, even to that of the horns, by paſture, exerciſe, and above all by the judicious choice of rams, on which much depends; as not alone beauty and other deſirable qualities, but deformity and even diſeaſe may be propagated and handed down through many generations.

'11thly, And laſtly, I think one might almoſt hazard an opinion from Dr. Pallas's information, that by care and attention to the fleece of lambs, of the Tſcherkeſſian, Boucharian, and Tauric varieties, from their birth to a certain age, a valuable fur trade might be carried on with the north and China, where they are in ſuch high eſtimation with the rich and great, as a winter dreſs, even more than our fineſt Siberian furs, at leaſt in Ruſſia and Poland.' P. 66.

The firſt Appendix refers to limits between ſpecies and varieties: the uſual one of propagating a *fertile* race will not hold beyond the vegetable kingdom, except in animals not very nearly reſembling each other; but a diſquiſition of this kind would lead us too far.

The effect of climate in altering the wool, forms the ſubject of the ſecond Appendix. The woolly animals of the temperate or frigid zone have been ſuppoſed to be hairy in hotter regions; and various facts, not ſufficiently noticed by Dr. Anderſon, give a ſanction to this opinion. He ſeems, however, to think it fallacious; but he has only raiſed doubts, without eſtabliſhing his own ſyſtem. He has, at leaſt, proved, that ſome breeds of ſheep will retain their fine fleeces even in warm climates; but he has not demonſtrated the general poſition, that climate does not influence the ſilky ſoftneſs of the wool. Every part of this Appendix deſerves attention. The whole ſubject relating to the covering of animals is treated in a very comprehenſive manner, and with great preciſion.

The third Appendix reſpects the changes produced on animals, by food and management. In this part, we find a copious examination of the effects of the ſalt marſhes, and the bitter plants; but the reſult is only, that, by the aſſiſtance of the more natural, congenial foods, the general health of the animal is increaſed, and its characteriſtics, of every kind, are in greater perfection.

In the account of fur-bearing animals, the ſubject of the fourth Appendix, are ſome important obſervations; and the

directions for chooſing ſheep, in the fifth, are particularly uſeful.

This volume, upon the whole, is curious and valuable. If it had contained more, we ſhould have been better pleaſed, as much remains to be told; but, for what is here given, Dr. Anderſon merits our thanks and thoſe of the public.

A Collection of Scarce and Intereſting Tracts, tending to elucidate detached Parts of the Hiſtory of Great Britain; ſelected from the Sommers-Collections, and arranged in Chronological Order. 4*to.* 1*l.* 5*s. Boards.* R. Edwards.

MOST of our readers may be ſuppoſed to have heard of the copious collection of tracts, publiſhed about the middle of the preſent century, to the amount of ſixteen volumes in quarto. Many of theſe pieces were printed from manuſcripts; the others were copied from different publications.

As it is very difficult to procure that work from which the preſent is extracted, the ſelector is entitled to our thanks for his endeavours to ſupply in ſome degree the wants of thoſe who lamented the rare occurrence of ſo uſeful a compilation; and we are pleaſed to find, that he has paid more attention to propriety of arrangement than the editors of the larger work, and has made, with ſome exceptions, a judicious choice of articles.

The volume contains fifty-ſeven pieces. An account of the baptiſm of prince Arthur, the ſon of Henry VII. is the firſt in order. It is immediately ſucceeded by a 'Remembrance for the Traduction of the Princeſſe Katherine,' daughter of Ferdinand of Arragon. A curious ſpecimen of the ſtyle of the latter piece is exhibited in this quotation.

'The impatient winds of that' [*the Spaniſh*] 'coaſt ſeem to have been greatlie agreveed, and not peaceably to ſuffer the paſſage of the ſaid princeſs to the coaſts of England, fatally ordained and predeſtinate the guifts, and alſo the dowrie of ſo godlie a ladie and princeſs: whereupon they cruellie with right great hugenes of ſtormes and tempeſts oppoſed with their outerageous blaſtes the cloathes of the ſhips, inhaunced their maſts out of their ſocketts, diſtroubled their tacklinge, and all their whole weigne, the perillous ſeas with waves ſoe fearfull wrought and areared, that unto the rulers and craſty mariners was moſt to theire freighte perſons to be ſafegarded, expedientily thought to ſome of theire owne latelie forſaken havens, they ſhould retourne their couſe, where within ſhorte ſeas, it contented Almightie God that more pleaſant winds ſhould goodlie rule the journeys of the cleare aires above, throughe whoſe helpe and aide unto the Engliſh partes, they were right ſhortelie convenied, and fortunatelie they arrived at Plymouth, farr in the countrie of the weſt.' P. 7.

Nothing is here given that belongs to the reigns of Henry VIII. Edward VI. and Mary; but that of Elizabeth has furniſhed ſeveral articles. One is, a report of ſome of the treaſonable practices of the earl of Northumberland, who ſhot himſelf in the Tower in 1585: in this narrative, the weapon which he uſed is ſtyled a dagger; for, in thoſe times, a piſtol was ſometimes called a *dagge*, or *dagger*. Another is, a long epiſtle ſent from London in 1588, by a catholic mal-content, to the Spaniſh ambaſſador at Paris; it contains a repreſentation of the ſtate of England. A letter from ſir Henry Sidney follows, giving advice to his ſon, who was afterwards the celebrated ſir Philip. One of the queen's ſpeeches, and the particulars of her laſt illneſs, death, and funeral, are alſo given.

The 'moſt triumphant and royal accompliſhment of the baptiſm' of prince Henry is detailed in a pompous relation; and the pageants with which king James was honoured in a proceſſion through the city of London, are copiouſly deſcribed. The ſucceeding piece is Treſwell's account of the chief occurrences of the journey of the earl of Nottingham to the Spaniſh court, as ambaſſador from James. Two articles follow, on the ſubject of the gunpowder-plot, and the puniſhment of the conſpirators.

In the detail of the ſolemnities and ſports which attended the marriage of the elector Palatine with the princeſs Elizabeth, the performances of the bridegroom at the *ring*, with thoſe of the king and his ſon Charles, are thus mentioned.

'The king, mounted upon a ſteed of much ſwiftnes, was the firſt that began the honourable paſtimes, and like a moſt noble martialiſt tooke the ring vpon his ſpeare, three ſeverall times together, whereat the trumpets ſtill ſounded to the great ioy of the beholders.

'After him the illuſtrious prince, Count Palatine, vpon a horſe of that braue courage, which ſeemed to ſtand vpon no ground, where with a ſpirit of much forwardneſs, he tooke the ring vpon his ſpeare twiſe together, ſo lightly, and ſo nimbly, that the whole aſſembly gave him high commendations.

'After him, the braue young flower, and hope of England, Prince Charles, mounted as it were vpon a Spaniſh jennet, that takes his ſwiftneſs from the nature of the winde, moſt couragiouſly, and with much agillitie of hand, tooke the ring clearly foure times in fiue courſes, which was in the eye of the kings maieſtie and the nobilitie, there preſent, a ſight of much admiration, and an exceeding comfort to all the land.' P. 199.

As the accurate account, by ſir Charles Cornwallis, of the life and death of prince Henry, was carefully conſulted by Dr. Birch, when he wrote his well-known life of that prince, we proceed to the narrative of 'the lord Digby's entertainment in Spain,' in which we meet with a ſtrange inſtance of popiſh prejudice and illiberality.

'Before I remove his lordſhip from St. Andero, I muſt not omit to tell you how Mr. Hole his ſecretary died there, and for want of Chriſtian burial, was fain to be put into a coffin and thrown into the ſea; but whether it was that they had not weight enough to keep it under water, or that the fiſhermen took it up on purpoſe, (fearing they ſhould catch no fiſh as long as the corps of an heretic lay in their waters,) certain it is, that after his lordſhip was parted thence, we had news that the coffin was broken up, and the corps of our countryman and brother, was thrown above ground to be devoured by the fowls of the air.' P. 251.

Paſſing over ſome intervening articles, we obſerve 'News from Bruſſels, in 1660;'—a letter pretended to have been written by an attendant of Charles II. To this libel Mr. Evelyn publiſhed an anſwer, which, though it was not introduced into the Sommers' collection, and therefore claims no place in this volume, is inſerted as an antidote to the venom of the News from Bruſſels.

In the 'Three Royal Cedars,' fulſome adulation is laviſhed upon Charles II. at a time, indeed, when he had not reigned, though his true character was not unknown.

'He is' (ſays Mr. Sanders) 'the pattern of patience and piety; the moſt righteous and juſteſt of kings; the moſt knowing and experienced of princes; the holieſt and the beſt of men; the ſevereſt puniſher of vice; the ſtricteſt rewarder of virtue; the conſtanteſt perſeverer in religion; and the trueſt lover of his ſubjects.' P. 361.

Several of the pieces relate to the duke of Monmouth, and his uncle James II. The ſpeech of the latter, on his death-bed, to his ſon, is couched in theſe terms:

'I am now leaving this world which has been to me a ſea of ſtorms and tempeſts; it being God almighty's will to wean me from it by many great afflictions. Serve him with all your power and ſtrength, and never put the crown of England in competition with your eternal ſalvation. There's no ſlavery like ſin, nor no liberty like his ſervice. If his holy providence ſhall think fit to ſet you upon the throne of your anceſtors, govern your people with juſtice and clemency, and take pity of your miſled ſubjects. Remember kings are not made for themſelves, but for the good of the people. Set before their eyes, in your own actions, a pattern of all manner of virtues. Conſider them as your children, aim at nothing but their good in correcting them. You are the child of vows and prayers. Behave yourſelf accordingly. Honour your mother, that your days may be long, and be always a kind brother to your dear ſiſter, that you may reap the bleſſings of concord and unity.' P. 440.

A humorous paper is given on the ſubject of the birth of the prince of Wales in 1688. The 'great men of England, and the potentates of the earth,' are repreſented as conſulting the oracle for the purpoſe of diſcovering whether the child was

the real or pretended ſon of James. The deciſion was thus pronounced; 'the child ſuppoſited, the monk reigning.'

To the 'Hiſtory of the Kentiſh petition' ſome verſes are added, the writer of which had a ſtronger claim to the character of a patriot than to that of a poet. We find theſe lines among them:

'England has this one fate peculiar to her,
Never to want a party to undo her,
The court, the king, the church, the parliament,
Alternately purſue the ſame intent,
Under the ſpecious term of liberty,
The paſſive injur'd people to betray:
And it has always been the people's fate,
To ſee their own miſtakes when 'twas too late,
Senſeleſs of danger, ſleepy and ſecure,
Till their diſtempers grew too ſtrong to cure;
Till they're embrac'd by the approaching grave,
And none but Jove and miracles can ſave.
In vain bold heroes venture to redeem
A people willinger to ſink than ſwim:
If there's a Brutus in the nation found,
That dares patrician uſurpation wound,
He's ſure to find an ignominious grave,
And periſh by the people he would ſave.' P. 542.

Without particulariſing the remaining tracts, we recommend the volume to the attention of the public.

Walſingham; or, the Pupil of Nature. A Domeſtic Story. By Mary Robinſon. 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 16*s. ſewed.* Longman. 1797.

IT cannot be expected that we ſhould enter into a minute detail of the various incidents of this novel; (for what reader would be gratified with an analyſis of four volumes?) but we will exhibit the prominent features of the ſtory.

Sir Edward Aubrey, who is killed by a fall from his horſe during the pregnancy of lady Aubrey, leaves the greater part of his fortune to the child, if it ſhould be a ſon, but, if a daughter, a ſmaller proportion of it. In either caſe, proviſion was to be made for his nephew Walſingham, the hero of the piece. The offspring proved to be a female; and lady Aubrey, at the inſtigation of an old ſervant of the family (who was intereſted in the affair), conceals the will, and educates the child in the diſguiſe of a boy, under the name of Sidney. After a variety of adventures, ſhe diſcloſes the whole of her former conduct; and Walſingham is married to his couſin Sidney. To this ſketch we will ſubjoin

ſome extracts, which will give our readers no unfavourable idea of the work.

The following quotation unfolds, in ſome degree, the character of Walſingham.

'I am the child of ſorrow, the victim of deception. I have been culpable, but not vicious; reſentful, but not vindictive. Mine have been the errors of a too vivid imagination; the miſeries of ſenſibility, acute, but not indiſcriminate. It is not from the multitude that I derive my anguiſh; the ſenſeleſs throng, and the gaudy ephemera of proſperous days, never had power to ſting me — for they were not my aſſociates! Cold and cheerleſs ſorrow has been my companion; and the ſhaft which pierced my boſom was winged by a reſiſtleſs hand — the hand of nature.

'Since my reſidence on the continent, I have endeavoured to mingle with ſociety; I am forlorn, but not miſanthropic; dejected, but not ſplenetic: there is an infinite difference between the uncomplaining ſadneſs of deſpondency and the peeviſh inquietude of a capricious imagination. What are the ſenſations I excite? Curioſity and pity. Pity! that miſerable boon which humanity beſtows in ſilence, but which oſtentation delights in diſplaying; while all the proud indignant throbbings of the wounded heart unite to repulſe the arrogant intruder. If there be a pang more terrible than death, a poiſon more ſubtle than the deſtructive aconite, a humiliation more poignant than contempt, or a torture more acute than the ſting of ingratitude, it is the agoniſing taunt which mocks philanthropy, the pity of the cold and oſtentatious boſom.

'If I ſometimes ſteal from the ſocial ſcenes of life, it is owing to my dread of diffuſing a gloom over the aſpect of ſurrounding objects: the pale and ſickly hue of melancholy muſt be obtruſive where all elſe is vivid, animated, glowing! I feel, yes, I feel that I am fit only for myſelf.' Vol. i. p. 7.

Walſingham, ill treated by lady Aubrey, and jealous of the regard of Iſabella (a young lady whom he loves) for Sidney, conceives the idea of entering into the army, at the ſuggeſtion of colonel Aubrey; but he is diſſuaded from his purpoſe.

'Colonel Aubrey, notwithſtanding my readineſs to accede to his propoſal, would not ſuffer me to decide raſhly on an event which might form the main ſpring of every future action. He was ſenſible that my expectations were few, and my proſpects clouded; he knew that all my hopes depended on the caprice of a proud, vindictive woman, whoſe mind was contaminated by avarice, and at the ſame time devoted to oſtentation. He conſidered my ardent deſire to enter a profeſſion which is always dazzling to a young mind, as the offspring of pique rather than the reſult of diſpaſſionate reflection. Mr. Hanbury united in diſſuading me from my purpoſe: he had ever wiſhed me to ſtudy divinity; he felt a philanthropic repugnance to the purſuit of ſanguinary warfare, and never heard the exultations of a victory, without heaving a ſigh for the miſeries of the vanquiſhed. I had for ſeveral days abſented myſelf from the manor-houſe, when I again urged him to ſanction

colonel Aubrey's propoſal; he ſhuddered — while I pleaded the ambition of a warm and youthful boſom, where every vein panted for independence. Iſabella was preſent during our converſation; ſhe ſeemed tenderly intereſted in my fate, and eagerly expreſſed her hopes that I would relinquiſh my project, "Conſider, Walſingham," ſaid ſhe, with a tone at once earneſt and impreſſive, "your charming couſin has offered you a home, a ſweet aſylum, here at Glenowen.—You were once fond of this mountain ſolitude; the deepeſt ſhade, the moſt barren precipice, had charms for your contemplative imagination: why are you changed? In what reſpect have they loſt their wonted attractions!"

"Iſabella, is it you who aſk this barbarous queſtion?" ſaid I, while the beating of my heart ſcarcely allowed my tongue the power of utterance. "Can I ever be the aſſociate, the friend of ſir Sidney Aubrey?"

"What ſhould prevent you?" cried Iſabella ſmiling; "with ſuch a companion you cannot fail to be happy; for wherever he goes, felicity muſt follow."

"Are theſe your ſentiments, Iſabella?" ſaid I, with emotion which I could no longer ſtifle: "is it the wretched, the diſtracted Walſingham whom you would humble by making him dependent on the object of your affections? Spare me, I conjure you, ſpare me the pang of conſcious degradation; let not the pupil of your brother ſtoop to the baſeneſs of diſhonour."

"Compoſe your mind, my dear Walſingham," interrupted Mr. Hanbury, "and diveſt it of that ſombre prejudice which early events have but too deeply rooted; ſir Sidney Aubrey deſerves that you ſhould think kindly of him: his virtues, the generoſity of his nature, ſhould intereſt you by congeniality, and place you beyond the reach of obligation; you muſt remain with us; you muſt be the friend, the aſſociate of this noble, this accompliſhed kinſman."

"Periſh the thought!" exclaimed I. "Under all the horrors of approaching events, this ſpot would be a ſcene of torture, which my fortitude would ſhrink at."

"Every ſpot which ſir Sidney inhabits muſt be a terreſtrial paradiſe!" cried Iſabella.

'I was almoſt frantic — I could but faintly articulate "I will depart." Vol. i. p. 315.

The character of Dr. Pimpernel, the director of a madhouſe, is curious. He

'had travelled much, and had tried all profeſſions, in all climates. The concluſions which he drew from experimental knowledge were theſe — That two-thirds of the breathing race were mad; and that he who could get poſſeſſion of a patient's mind, was more than half aſſured of dominion, whether in a ſtate of convaleſcence or of confirmed inſanity. For this reaſon he ſet up a mind-mill, where he ground the ſhattered particles of intellect, to his own purpoſe; and when the produce of his labour promiſed either reputation or profit, he never failed to promote the one, or to embrace the other. A huſband who wanted to have a troubleſome wife taken care of — a libertine who wiſhed to provide for a

miſtreſs, when the edge of paſſion became blunted by ſatiety — or a man of refined taſte, who ſought to ſecure unguarded innocence, found infinite advantages in the ſubduing atmoſphere of the all-potent mind-mill.

'To this ſcene of variegated miſery Miſs Woodford was conveyed, bathed with her mother's tears, and unconſcious of her dreary deſtination; the doctor promiſed to attend her daily, abſolutely forbidding all intercourſe with her family or connections.

'Mrs. Woodford's confidence in doctor Pimpernel's profeſſional ſkill was boundleſs; ſhe did not recollect that he was alſo ſkilled in profeſſions; and that ſincerity was not one of thoſe qualities which characteriſed his mind, in his intercourſe with ſociety. That friend whom he "grappled to his heart with hooks of ſteel" one day — the next he would "caſt like a loathſome weed away." With the little he was the greateſt of men; with the great he ſhrunk into the leaſt! He talked higher and bowed lower than any courtly hater of courts within the atmoſphere of political warfare. Like the vanes of a ſteeple, he ſoared above every other object, and was perpetually turning to all points without fixing to any. Born in one country, educated in another, a traveller in a third, and a citizen of a fourth, he had acquired a ſmattering of every language — a guſto for every folly, a degree of notoriety in all, but a portion of reputation in none. He had written books that nobody read, and related wonders which nobody credited. His mind was a ſort of ſalmagundi of Hibernian aſſurance, Scottiſh erudition, Italian ſhrewdneſs, Iberian pride, Gallic philoſophy, and Engliſh apathy — the one perpetually ſtruggling with the other, without either, for a moment, obtaining the aſcendancy. Born in Ireland, educated in Scotland, poliſhed in Italy, and bronzed in Britain — he was originally intended for the church; but the circumſcribed limits of his theological reſearches excluded him from the interior of the holy ſanctuary, and confined the ſpecimens of his art to the ſadly ſolemn precincts of the church-yard, where innumerable monuments will remain to the end of time, of his induſtry, ſkill, popularity, and experience.' Vol. iii. p. 313.

At the concluſion of the work, Walſingham thus ſpeaks:

'Now, Roſanna, retired from the buſy varying ſcenes of noiſe and folly, I leave thoſe trifling vicious reptiles whom you have met with during the progreſs of my diſaſtrous ſtory, to the infamy that will mark their names, till fate conſigns them to oblivion. I have held them up as beacons, to warn the unwary: I have pourtrayed them, as they are; neither with a flattering nor a diſtorting pencil. If they continue to triumph over the children of worth and genius, it will only prove that, in this undefinable ſphere, where the beſt and wiſeſt cannot hope for happineſs, the demons of art are permitted to oppreſs with wrongs, while they lift the empty brow of arrogance and pride above the illuſtrious pupils of genius, truth, and nature!" Vol. iv. p. 400.

The language is eaſy, and not inelegant; but it does not poſſeſs that energy which brings to our recollection the idea

of 'thoughts that breathe, and words that burn.' The incidents are, for the moſt part, new and intereſting. Walſingham, however, ranks not ſo high in our opinion as ſome other works of Mrs. Robinſon. The general plan is without any moral tendency. The principal hinge on which the ſtory turns,—the education of a young lady in maſculine habits,—cannot, we think, be either inſtructive or amuſing. The reader is almoſt inclined to execrate lady Aubrey, though her faults proceed in part from a miſtaken fondneſs for her child. She, however, makes reparation to thoſe who have ſuffered in conſequence of her miſconduct; and the principal characters become ultimately happy.

Of the poetry, the following ſpecimen will ſuffice.

'Ah! cold Neglect! more chilling far
Than Zembla's blaſt or Scythia's ſnow!
Sure, born beneath a luckleſs ſtar
Is he, who, after ev'ry pain
Has wrung his boſom's central vein,
To fill his bitter cup of woe,
Is deſtin'd thee to know!

'The ſmiles of fame, the pride of truth,
All that can lift the glowing mind,
The nobleſt energies of youth,
Wit, valour, genius, ſcience, taſte!
A form by all that's lovely grac'd,
A ſoul where virtue dwells enſhrin'd,
A prey to thee we find!

'The ſpring of life looks freſh and gay,
The flow'rs of fancy bud around!
We think that ev'ry morn is May;
While hope and rapture fill the breaſt,
We hold reflection's lore a jeſt,
Nor own that ſorrow's ſhaft can wound,
Till cold Neglect is found.

'Ah! then, how ſad the world appears,
How falſe, how idle are the gay!
Morn only breaks to witneſs tears,
And ev'ning cloſes, but to ſhew
That darkneſs mimics human woe,
And life's beſt ſcene a ſummer day,
That ſhines and fades away!

'Some dread diſeaſe, and others woe,
Some viſionary torments ſee;
Some ſhrink unpitied love to know,
Some writhe beneath oppreſſion's fangs,
And ſome with jealous hopeleſs pangs:
But whatſoe'er my fate may be,
Oh, keep Neglect from me!

'E'en, after death, let mem'ry's hand,
Directed by the moon-light ray,
Weave o'er my grave a cypreſs band,
And bind the ſod with curious care,
And ſcatter flow'rets freſh and fair,
And oft the ſacred tribute pay,
To keep Neglect away!' Vol. ii. p. 290.

The reader will here recogniſe all the harmony, ſweetneſs, and delicacy of expreſſion, of this popular writer. Though theſe characteriſtics of female verſification may ſometimes, for want of the *vis poëtica*, degenerate into inſipidity and affectation, yet, upon the whole, in theſe volumes the poetry is pleaſing and elegant.

The Satires of Perſius. Tranſlated by William Drummond, Eſq. M. P. 8*vo.* 4*s. Boards.* Wright. 1797.

MR. Drummond has attempted an arduous taſk. The tranſlator of Perſius muſt ſoften the obſcene, and explain the obſcure: this has been done with judgment in the preſent verſion; but the ſenſe of the ſatiriſt is frequently dilated, and the ſtrength of his beſt paſſages loſt. This remark may be exemplified in thoſe lines of the third ſatire which are equal to any effort of Latin poetry.

'Magne pater divûm, ſævos punire tyrannos
Haud aliâ ratione velis, cum dira libido
Moverit ingenium ferventi tincta veneno;
Virtutem videant, intabeſcantque relictâ.
Anne magis Siculi gemuerunt æra juvenci,
Et magis auratis pendens laquearibus enſis
Purpureas ſubter cervices terruit, Imus,
Imus præcipites, quàm ſi ſibi dicat, et intus
Palleat infelix, quod proxima neſciat uxor?'

'Great ſire of gods, let not thy thunder fall
On princes when their crimes for vengeance call;
But let remembrance puniſh guilty kings,
And conſcience wound with all her thouſand ſtings;
Let Truth's fair form confeſs'd before them riſe;
And Virtue ſtand reveal'd to mortal eyes:
Aſtoniſh tyrants by her placid mien,
And teach them, dying, what they might have been.
Does he feel keener pangs, acuter pains,
Whom, doom'd to death, the brazen bull contains?

Or, clothed in purple, was that wretch more bleſs'd
Whom ſlaves attended, and whom courts careſs'd,
While from the roof, ſuſpended by a thread,
The pointed ſword hung threatening o'er his head;
Than that bold wretch, who, unappall'd at crimes,
By mad ambition urged to grandeur climbs;
From his dark boſom dares not lift the veil,
Shudders in thought, and at himſelf grows pale,
Truſting to none the ſecrets of his life,
Not even confiding in his weeping wife?' P. 43.

Dryden has rendered this paſſage with as little force, and with leſs fidelity.

The concluſion of the ſecond ſatire is weakened in the ſame manner.

'Quin damus id ſuperis, de magnâ quod dare lance
Non poſſit magni Meſſalæ lippa propago;
Compoſitum jus fasque animo, ſanctosque receſſus
Mentis, et incoctum generoſo pectus honeſto?
Hæc cedo ut admoveam templis, et farre litabo.'

'Let me give that which wealth cannot beſtow,
The pomp of riches, nor the glare of ſhow;
Let me give that, which from their golden pot
Meſſala's proud and blear-eyed race could not:
To the juſt gods let me preſent a mind,
Which civil and religious duties bind,
A guileleſs heart, which no dark ſecrets knows,
But with the generous love of virtue glows.
Such be the preſents, ſuch the gifts I make,
With them I ſacrifice a wheaten cake.' P. 35.

The lines of Dryden are better, though they by no means equal the original.

But let us for the gods a gift prepare,
Which the great man's great charges cannot bear;
A ſoul where laws both human and divine
In practice more than ſpeculation ſhine;
A genuine virtue of a vigorous kind,
Pure in the laſt receſſes of the mind:
When with ſuch offerings to the gods I come,
A cake, thus given, is worth a hecatomb.'

The beſt mode of rendering Perſius, perhaps, would be to correct the verſion which Dryden haſtily, though not without conſiderable merit, executed.

Mr. Drummond appears to more advantage as an original writer. We will quote a ſpecimen from his prologue.

'As time ſpeeds on, and years revolve, my friend,
I grow too idle, or too old to mend.
While yet a youth, my pure deſcriptive lays
The learn'd could ſuffer, and the partial praiſe.
Her brilliant tints Imagination threw,
O'er the wild ſcenes my artleſs pencil drew;
Soft numbers fell unſtudied from my tongue,
Fancy was pleas'd, and Judgment yet was young;
Gay Hope then ſmoothed the wrinkled brow of Time,
Love waved his torch, and Youth was in its prime.
But ſoon the tempeſt gather'd o'er my head,
Health loſt her bloom, and faithleſs Pleaſure fled;
Friendſhip retired, and left me to decay,
And Love deſponding threw his torch away.
'Twas then, when ſickneſs and when ſorrow drew
Their ſable curtain on my clouded view:
When loſt to hope, I wander'd, wan and pale,
O'er Cintra's rocks, or ſought Vaucluſe's vale;
That left in diſtant climes to droop and pine,
The Muſe's converſe and her art were mine:
Nor leſs beloved has been the tuneful lay,
Since fortune ſmiled, and fate reſtored my day.' P. XXV.

The tranſlator's preface is diſcriminating and elegant. Though there are many readers who will not agree with him in aſſigning to Horace the firſt place among the Roman ſatiriſts, the paſſage in which he ſums up the different merits of thoſe writers may be read with pleaſure.

'Horace is the moſt agreeable and the moſt inſtructive writer; Juvenal the moſt ſplendid declaimer; and Perſius the moſt inflexible moraliſt. The firſt is like a ſkilful gladiator, who vanquiſhes without deſtroying his antagoniſt;—the ſecond exerts gigantic ſtrength in the conteſt;—and the third enters the liſts with all the ardour of a youthful combatant. If the ſtyle of Horace be chaſter, if his Latinity be purer, if his manner be gayer and more agreeable than either of the two ſatiriſts who follow him, he does not write finer verſes than Juvenal, nor has he nobler thoughts than Perſius. The poetry of the firſt reſembles a beautiful river, which glides along through pleaſant ſcenes, ſunny fields, and ſmiling valleys: that of the ſecond is like the majeſtic ſtream, whoſe waters, in flowing by the largeſt city in Europe, are polluted with no ſmall portion of its filth and ordure: that of the third may be compared to a deep and angry torrent, which loves to roll its ſullen waves under the dark ſhadow of the mountain, or amidſt the ſilent gloom of the foreſt.' P. XVI.

The Hygrology, or Chemico-Phyſiological Doctrine of the Fluids of the Human Body, tranſlated from the Latin of J. J. Plenck of Vienna, Profeſſor of Chemiſtry, &c. By Robert Hooper, M. D. &c. 8*vo.* 5*s. Boards.* Booſey. 1797.

BY the application of chemical knowledge, many of the arts and ſciences have received conſiderable improvement; and the advantages which medicine has derived from this ſource are by no means few or unimportant. Of its utility in unfolding the conſtituent principles of the fluid parts of the human ſyſtem, we have a tolerable ſpecimen in the preſent volume, though we cannot ſuppoſe with the tranſlator that it affords a *complete* view of the ſubject.

The concluſions of profeſſor Plenck are in general too conciſe and too tabular, to be extenſively uſeful to the medical inquirer; and the experiments upon which they reſt do not afford ſufficient opportunities of judging of the accuracy of the different analytical proceſſes. The work, indeed,

'is principally deſigned as a compendium, or text-book, to the more *elaborate labours* of modern chemiſts, who have, in part only, examined the properties of ſome particular fluids of the body; but it is to be hoped, that it may further excite phyſicians, to elucidate the nature and office of the animal fluids, by this mode of analyſis, and lead to a clearer conception of the animal œconomy.' P. ii.

The analyſis of the humours of the human body is a buſineſs of much difficulty, even to the modern chemiſt. How it has been performed by the profeſſor in this work, the reader will be in ſome meaſure enabled to judge from the extracts which we ſhall ſubmit to his peruſal.

Speaking of the ſolid parts, the author obſerves, that —

'The ſubſtance of a red muſcle is very compound. For it conſiſts,

'1. Of adipoſe membrane, which contains the oil of animal fat.

'2. Of vaſcular ſubſtance, the blood of which gives redneſs to the muſcle. Thus a muſcle waſhed for a long time becomes pale, and imparts its redneſs to the water.

'3. Of nerves and lymphatic veſſels, which run through the ſubſtance of the muſcle.

'4. Of an irritable fibrous ſubſtance, which conſtitutes the fleſh of the muſcle.

'The conſtituent principles of theſe four parts are ſeparated from each other in the following manner:

'1. The red fleſh is to be waſhed with cold water, until all the

redneſs diſappear. The reddened water evaporated by gentle heat, leaves an albuminous gluten, and a portion of the ſalt contained in the ſerum of the blood.

'2. The fleſh that remains after waſhing is to be ſteeped for ſome time in alcohol of wine; by which the extractive principle of the fleſh and the remaining portion of the ſalt is extracted.

'3. The fleſh that ſtill remains is to be well-boiled, in water. In this way the animal jelly and the oil of the fat is obtained from muſcle.

'4. The fleſh which remains after boiling is a fibrous, white, inſipid, inodorous maſs; irreſoluble in water, contracting very much in the fire, and ſoon putrefying. Hence it bears a great ſimilitude to the fibrous gluten of the cruor, which is therefore not improperly called *caro fluida*.

'5. All animal fleſh boiled with the acid of nitre gives out a great quantity of azotic gas, and by dry diſtillation leaves carbone, very difficult to incinerate. Hence the elements of the fleſhy fibres are the animal gluten of the fibres.

'Thus the ſubſtance of a muſcle is very compound; for it conſiſts of,

'1. Animal jelly.

'2. Oil of animal fat.

'3. The albumen of the ſerum of the blood.

'4. The fibrous gluten of the cruor.

'5. The extractive principle, proper to fleſh.

'This extractive principle of the fleſh as yet has not been ſatisfactorily explored by chemiſts.

'By evaporation, it gives out, an agreeable, almoſt aromatic ſmell. Its taſte is bitteriſh, and rather acrid. It is ſoluble in water and alcohol of wine.

'The ſalt contained in this extract appears to be the ſoda phoſphorata and calx phoſphorata. Does it not alſo contain ſugar? For the brown cruſt of roaſted meat diffuſes an agreeable ſmell almoſt like that of burnt ſugar.

'The boiling of fleſh in water affords the following analyſis.

'1. Spuma, or froth on the ſurface of the water; it ariſes from the albuminous gluten of the ſerum of the blood, and is removed with a ſkimmer.

'2. Oily particles, which ſwim upon the ſurface of the broth, and are extracted from the adipoſe membrane of the muſcle.

'3. Jelly of fleſh, which mixes with the boiling water and remains in a fluid ſtate by heat; but in cooling, the fat is ſeparated in the form of a ſolid cruſt, on the ſurface of the broth.

'4. Extractive matter, which is the proper juice of the fleſh, and gives colour, ſmell, and taſte to the broth. It alſo forms a brown cruſt on the ſurface of roaſted meat, which gives to it the agreeable taſte and ſmell of burnt ſugar.

'5. Fibrous matter of meat when perfectly boiled, which is without ſmell, taſte, or colour.

'Therefore the muſcular fibre appears to conſiſt of fibrous gluten and extractive matter.' P. 21.

His obſervations on the nervous fluid are not very luminous. We are not in the leaſt benefited by his remark, that it is an element *ſui generis*, which is produced and exiſts only in the nerves.

On the ſynovia of the joints, we have theſe concluſions —

'The ſecretory organ is compoſed of the ſynovial glands, ſo ſituated in peculiar foveoli in the articulations, that they can only be very ſlightly preſſed by the heads of the bones. There is alſo mixed with this liquid, an aqueous vapour, ſecreted by the arteries of the capſular ligament; which, when in too great a quantity, is abſorbed by the lymphatic veſſels, opening into the cavity of the joint.

'The ſmell of ſynovia is fatuous, animal, like that of the ſperma of frogs. Taſte: ſaltiſh.

'Colour: pellucid; and of a greeniſh white. Conſiſtence: viſcous.

'Specific gravity; greater than diſtilled water.

'Quantity: more or leſs, according to the ſize of the joint. It is greateſt in the articulation of the femur and knee.

'It unites with cold water, and when agitated, froths, by reaſon of its albuminous principle. It lacteſces with boiling water, and in part coagulates. It alſo in part coagulates with alcohol of wine.

'Expoſed to a dry atmoſphere, it gradually paſſes from a viſcous into a gelatinous conſiſtence; at length it again becomes viſcous, indurates into a ſcaly net, and depoſits ſaline chryſtals, which are, aerated ſoda and culinary ſalt.

'It becomes green with ſyrup of violets; and renders lime water turbid.

'Synovia is not changed by aerated alkali; but by cauſtic alkali it is rendered more fluid. Dried ſynovia and its fibrous precipitate are diſſolved in the ſame manner.

'A floccous ſubſtance is precipitated from ſynovia, by the concentrated mineral and vegetable acids; which is again diſſolved in acids not concentrated. The diluted mineral acid and acetum, coagulate ſynovia, and the ſolution gradually becomes clear, after depoſiting its fibrous precipitate.

'Conſtituent principles: two hundred and eighty-eight grains of ox's ſynovia, contain,

'Of water, two hundred and thirty grains.

'Of a common albuminous principle, thirteen grains.

'Of a particular albuminous principle, thirty four grains.

'Of aerated ſoda, two grains.

'Of culinary ſalt, five grains.

'Of phoſphorated calx, two grains.

'By dry diſtillation ſynovia gives out an inſipid water ſoon putrefying, volatile alkali, and empyreumatic oil. From the remaining elixiviated carbone, culinary ſalt and aerated ſoda are obtained; and from the incinerated carbone, a phoſphoric calx.

'The uſe of ſynovia.

'1. It lubricates the cartilaginous ſurfaces of the articulatory bones, to prevent their being rubbed down by motion: thus it facilitates the motion of the articulations, and impedes the diſagreeable ſtrepitus, or creeking, during their motion.

'2. It prevents the concretion of the articulated bones from long reſt.' P. 216.

In ſome inſtances, the profeſſor has made uſe of ſuch terms as are not at preſent generally employed. In theſe caſes the tranſlator ought, in our opinion, to have ſubſtituted thoſe of the new chemical nomenclature, in order to render the work more uniform and intelligible. There is another point which claims our notice. In many places, the tranſlation is nearly as difficult to the younger ſtudents as the original. Theſe are a few examples out of many that preſent themſelves. In page 64 we read, 'The lachrymal humour which runs from the *lachrymal ſac*, through the *naſal canals* under the inferior *concha naſalis*, into the poſterior *meatus* of the noſtrils;' and, in page 70, 'The *ſubmaxillary* glands which pour out their *ſaliva* through the *Warthonian ducts*, on each ſide of the *frenulum* of the tongue, by a narrow *oſculum*.'

If tranſlations be neceſſary, they are only calculated for the uſe of thoſe who are unacquainted with the original language: what benefit ſuch readers will derive from paſſages like thoſe which we have quoted, let others decide.

A REVIEW

OF

PUBLIC AFFAIRS,

FROM

the Beginning of JANUARY to the End of APRIL, 1798.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

WITHIN the laſt ten years, ſo frequent have been the changes in the political ſcene of Europe, that future alterations may be apprehended, not merely by ſuperficial obſervers and thoſe who are eaſily alarmed, but even by cool and deliberate inſpectors of the occurrences of the times, and by acute ſpeculators upon probable contingencies. As events the moſt unexpected, and incidents the moſt extraordinary, have taken place in various regions, the revolutionary ſpirit, it may be ſuppoſed, will not immediately ſubſide; but, after thoſe diſplays of it which we have ſeen, we ſhall be the leſs ſurpriſed at other ebullitions of the ſame zeal. Amidſt theſe convulſions, we are happy to find that Great-Britain ſtill maintains her independence, and that her conſtitution, though leſs pure in practice than in theory, ſtill deſerves and obtains the ſupport of her ſons, and defies the threats of a republican foe.

Though the menaces of the French for the ruin of our government were deſpiſed by ſpirited politicians, their preparations for an invaſion were at length thought of ſufficient moment to require extraordinary means of national defence. On the 11th of January, the king ſent a meſſage to each houſe of parliament, intimating that he had received intelligence of 'meaſures taken in France, apparently in

purſuance of a deſign of attempting the invaſion of theſe kingdoms;' and that he therefore thought it incumbent upon him to omit no precaution which might contribute to the ſafety of his people. No debate aroſe when addreſſes of thanks were recommended; and, on the following day, the two houſes adjourned for ſome weeks.

The notoriety of the French preparations rendered the new aſſeſſment leſs unpopular than it would otherwiſe have been, as the danger of the country ſeemed to juſtify the demands of the court for the maintenance of public ſecurity. During the debates on the bill which impoſed this burthen, ſome of the members expreſſed an intention of contributing beyond the amount of the demand, and a wiſh that all perſons who were not in a ſtate of poverty would follow ſuch an example. The propoſal was approved; and the directors of the bank were authoriſed by the act to receive voluntary contributions. At firſt, the ſubſcribers did not throng the bank; but they ſoon became numerous; and many were very liberal. The ſovereign was one of the contributors; and from whom could a conſiderable grant be more reaſonably expected? His preſent, however, did not exceed 20,000 pounds. The queen was alſo a ſubſcriber: her gift amounted to 5,000 pounds. From moſt of the provincial towns donations were tranſmitted to the metropolis; but the aggregate receipts, we believe, have not anſwered the expectations of the court. Pamphlets were publiſhed to ſtimulate the people to the ſacrifice of a part of their property at the altar of patriotiſm; and the ſolicitors of general bounty did not ſcruple to requeſt, in printed bills, the contribution of *a ſhilling* out of the ſmall earnings of the manufacturing journeyman and the poor labourer.

While the ſubſcriptions were in daily progreſs, the public attention was arouſed by an inſtance of royal diſpleaſure, which followed a political and convivial meeting of the opponents of the miniſtry, on the anniverſary of the birth of Mr. Fox. The duke of Norfolk, in a ſpeech to the company, made a pointed reference to the ſituation of general Waſhington at the beginning of the American war, when not more than 2000 men (the ſuppoſed number preſent at this meeting) were aſſembled around him. He afterwards propoſed ſeveral toaſts recommendatory of conſtitutional reform; and at length gave 'the ſovereign majeſty of the people.' His behaviour, which was certainly indiſcrete, was ſo reſented at court, that he was diſmiſſed from the

dignity of lieutenant of the weſt-riding of Yorkſhire, and from the appointment of colonel of the militia of that diſtrict. The comments that were made on this treatment by the two parties, may eaſily be conjectured by our readers.

The commons, having reſumed their deliberations on the 8th of February, entered upon the ſubject of national defence. Mr. Dundas moved for the introduction of a bill to enable his majeſty to call out a certain portion of the ſupplementary militia, and incorporate a part of that body in the companies of militia; and the bill was ſoon carried into effect. Other meaſures for the ſecurity of the realm were for ſome time in contemplation; and, on the 27th of March, the ſame miniſter propoſed a bill for more effectually counteracting the French ſcheme of invaſion. It was not brought forward, he ſaid, from any apprehenſions which he or his collegues entertained of the power of the enemy, when exerted againſt a gallant and reſolute nation; but it was his opinion, that neither the legiſlative authority nor the executive power could do full juſtice to the intereſts of the country, if they did not encourage and direct the zeal of thoſe who were inclined to take arms in aid of the regular troops, and reduce to a ſyſtem that voluntary force which, when deſultory and tumultuary, would be comparatively feeble and inefficient. The general object of his bill was to obtain an account of the number of perſons able and willing to defend their country, and to authoriſe his majeſty to require their active ſervice in caſe of emergency. A ſhort and unimportant debate aroſe; and, in the courſe of it, the miniſter being aſked whether it was the intention of the court to *compel* the people to take arms, an anſwer was given in the negative. Such compulſion, indeed, would not only be tyrannical in the extreme, but would defeat itſelf. After undergoing many alterations in the committee, the bill was completely ſanctioned; and letters were ſent by Mr. Dundas to the provincial lieutenants, giving explicit directions for the due execution of the act.

By this ſtatute it was ordained, among other proviſions, that returns ſhould be made of all the male inhabitants of the different counties, between the ages of fifteen and ſixty years; that liſts ſhould be prepared of thoſe who were *willing* to ſerve on horſeback or on foot, to act as pioneers, as ſervants with cattle, or as guides; that accounts of cattle, waggons, corn, &c. ſhould be made out; and that compen-

ſation ſhould be granted to all who might ſuffer in their property, from the meaſures which might be expedient for the promotion of general ſafety, in caſe of extraordinary danger. As it was apprehended that diſaffected individuals might, from ſeditious motives, intrude into the armed aſſociations, it was provided, that none but reſpectable houſekeepers, or perſons who could bring at leaſt two ſuch houſekeepers to anſwer for their good behaviour, ſhould be admitted.

In the houſe of peers, a new attempt was made, on the 22d of March, for effecting the expulſion of the miniſter and his chief friends from the cabinet. The duke of Bedford made an eloquent and ſpirited appeal to the good ſenſe and patriotiſm of the lords, againſt the continuance of pernicious counſellors in power: but prejudice and influence prevailed over his efforts; and, after a long debate, into which, as the arguments and obſervations were not novel, it is unneceſſary to enter, his motion was rejected by a majority of 100.

An attempt of a different kind, which had frequently failed, was renewed in the houſe of commons, on the 3d of April, by Mr. Wilberforce. That gentleman, in a ſpeech which the ſubject rendered intereſting, and which in itſelf was not contemptible, conjured the houſe to vote for the abolition of the ſlave-trade, a traffic diſgraceful to all who are concerned in it. Mr. Bryan Edwards declared himſelf friendly to the gradual ſuppreſſion of the trade; but maintained, that a ſudden and violent abolition of it would be highly impolitic, and injurious to the proſperity of the Weſt-Indian iſlands. Mr. Pitt ſtrongly controverted this opinion; alleging, that an immediate abolition was even eſſential to the intereſt of the iſlands. Mr. Fox expreſſed his ſurpriſe that an aſſembly which, on points far leſs clear, and leſs favourable to freedom, implicitly adopted the dictates of the miniſter, ſhould, in this inſtance, be diſpoſed to differ from him; an oppoſition of ſentiment for which it was difficult to account, unleſs it ſhould be concluded that the houſe had deliberately reſolved to diſcourage the general principles of liberty. The votes were nearly equal on both ſides; 83 favouring the motion, and 87 oppoſing it.

In reverting to the affairs of finance, we are pleaſed with the opportunity of announcing a dereliction of the ill-judged tax of the laſt ſeſſion upon clocks and watches, by

which that branch of trade had been materially injured. In lieu of that duty, however, an addition was made to the aſſeſſed taxes, which, before, were exorbitantly high.

An important ſcheme which had occupied the long deliberation of the miniſter, was ſubmitted, on the 2d of April, to parliamentary conſideration. He ſtated that his purpoſe was to invigorate public credit, and facilitate the means of proſecuting that conteſt which the ambition of the French had prolonged. The chief feature of his plan was to transfer a part of the funded ſecurities into landed ſecurity, on terms advantageous both to the ſtate and to individuals. The large amount of the funded debt being the only preſſure which embarraſſed the efforts of the nation, a ſcheme which would diminiſh that capital was recommended, he ſaid, by obvious principles of ſound policy; and a meaſure which, without ſubjecting the people to any new burthens, would combine an annual ſaving with other advantages, could not fail of ſecuring general approbation. He proceeded to obſerve, that the produce of the land-tax might be eſtimated at two millions; that, though the equaliſation of this impoſt had long been deſired by a conſiderable part of the community, no attempt had been made by the legiſlature, during a whole century, to carry ſuch a ſcheme into effect; that, therefore, a correction of the inequality was not more to be expected, if the vote of the tax ſhould continue to be annual, than if the grant ſhould be rendered perpetual; that, if any objection ſhould be made to the eventual removal, in this inſtance, of the progreſſive control of the parliament, it might be obviated by making a part of the conſolidated fund annual, even to an amount which might exceed that of the land-tax; that the tax, according to the new ſcheme, might be redeemed by a transfer of ſuch a portion of ſtock, in the 3 *per cent.* as would yield a dividend exceeding, by a fifth part, the *quantum* of the tax to be purchaſed; that no perſon would be compelled to redeem his ſhare of the tax, but that, if he ſhould be unwilling or unable to purchaſe it, a ſtranger would be allowed to take the advantage of the bargain; that, if the plan ſhould be fully adopted, 80 millions of ſtock would be taken from the funded capital; and that, as the annual dividend of that ſum was 2,400,000 pounds, 400,000 pounds *per annum* would be ſaved, while the purchaſers of the tax would have the be-

nefit arifing from the ſuperiority of landed to funded ſecurity.

Some objections were made to this plan by Mr. Tierney and ſir William Pulteney; and the former maintained that it was not only unconſtitutional, but was a mere inſtance of quackery, deluſive and inefficient, and that the alleged diminution of ſtock was accompanied with the creation of a new fund, which was likely to be more injurious than beneficial. The latter alſo argued, that the effects of the meaſure would be totally different from thoſe which the projector pretended to foreſee. After ſeveral debates, the propoſitions of Mr. Pitt were proviſionally ſanctioned.

If we may venture to diſapprove the ſcheme, it appears to be chiefly objectionable on this ground, that it fixes and perpetuates a tax which was intended to be annual, and to be ſubject to the periodical control of the commons.

It was not generally ſuppoſed, that the miniſter would be content with the ſupplies which were voted in the former part of the ſeſſion. He then demanded leſs than twenty-five millions and a half; but, on the 25th of Aprl, he intimated, that about three millions more would be neceſſary for the exigencies of the year. The navy, he ſaid, would require 13,448,000 pounds, in the whole, as additions had been made to the number of ſeamen: the army had alſo been augmented; and the aggregate ſupply for the year might be ſtated at 28,490,000 pounds. In this eſtimate, however, no proviſion was made for any extraordinary expenſe which an increaſe of the danger of invaſion might demand, and for which a vote of credit might be neceſſary. As far as he could at preſent judge, two millions would be ſufficient for the extent of ſuch a vote.

Under the head of ways and means, alterations were neceſſarily made in the account which we before gave *. The moiety of a million from the conſolidated fund was omitted; and the produce of the next lottery was to remain 200,000 pounds. The new aſſeſſment was taken at only four millions and a half: the voluntary contributions were expected to amount to one million and a half: new duties on exports and imports were repreſented as likely to produce the ſame ſum; and the loan was extended to fif-

* See our laſt Appendix, p. 567.

teen millions. The aggregate ſum was thus increaſed to 28, 450,000 pounds.

Of the advantage which the public derived from the terms of the loan, the chancellor of the exchequer loudly boaſted; affirming, that, if all the circumſtances of the caſe be conſidered, a better bargain was never made. This happy adjuſtment aroſe from the confidence which the moneyed men repoſed in the ſolidity of our reſources; a confidence which, he added, was *moſt unqueſtionably juſt.*

For each hundred pounds, the ſubſcribers to the loan obtained only ſo much ſtock as, at the price which then prevailed, would have required 99 *l.* 12 *s.* and a fraction for the purchaſe. They derived ſome profit, however, from the diſcount allowed for prompt payment, which advanced the ſum to 12 *l.* 4 *s.* 6½ *d.* If, on the contrary, they preferred a ſucceſſion of payments, they would only have 101 *l.* 2 *s.* 7¾ *d.*

The intereſt of the loan was to be partly anſwered by the aſſeſſed taxes; but, for the payment of the other part, new impoſts were requiſite. Tea and ſalt were therefore ſubjected to additional duties; and, with greater propriety, a tax was impoſed on armorial bearings. It was ſuppoſed by the grand financier, that the tax on the firſt of theſe articles would produce 111,000 pounds, and that the duty on ſalt would raiſe 503,000 pounds, while that upon armorial vanity would probably add 150,000 pounds to the revenue.

Before theſe freſh demands were made, a meſſage from the ſovereign had announced, not only that 'the preparations for the embarkation of troops and warlike ſtores were carried on with conſiderable and increaſing activity in the ports of France, Flanders, and Holland,' but that the French were encouraged, in their ſcheme of invaſion, 'by the correſpondence and communication of traitorous and diſaffected perſons and ſocieties of theſe kingdoms.' His majeſty therefore, beſides giving orders of military array, exhorted the parliament to conſider of ſuch other meaſures as might enable him 'to defeat the wicked machinations of diſaffected perſons within theſe realms, and to guard againſt the deſigns of the enemy either abroad or at home.' When an addreſs was propoſed, Mr. Sheridan delivered a ſpirited and patriotic ſpeech, which attracted in a high degree the attention of the commons and of the public. He repreſented the danger of the country as extreme, and lamented that it was not univerſally conſidered in that for-

midable point of view. Some indications of ſpirit, he ſaid, had undoubtedly appeared; but heſitation and ſupineneſs ſeemed too prevalent. He would not, however, affirm that the want of general alacrity aroſe from diſaffection, or from a ſullen and ill-timed reſentment of injuries ſuſtained from mal-adminiſtration: it rather proceeded, he thought, from an unwillingneſs to believe that the danger was really great. But he did not deſpair of the ſpeedy removal of this ſupineneſs. It would occur to every reflecting perſon, that, though no invaſion had taken place, it was neceſſary to be prepared againſt that emergency, and that an inſenſibility to the calamities with which it might be attended would materially obſtruct the ſucceſs of defenſive meaſures. If the French ſhould ſucceed in their views of invaſive hoſtility, the ruin of Britiſh freedom and proſperity would be complete. Their profeſſions of a deſire of reſcuing this nation from preſent ſlavery, and of eſtabliſhing a juſt and humane government, would be found inſincere and treacherous; and a courſe of rapacity and tyranny would enſue. To an enemy who would thus treat us, a ſtrenuous and unanimous oppoſition was neceſſary. Many would perhaps ſay, that they could not prepare with due ſpirit for reſiſtance, while miniſters, whom they deemed unworthy of confidence, ſtill ſwayed the realm; but, however juſt ſuch diſapprobation was, and however commendable the deſire of the diſgrace of ſuch men, policy ſeemed to require that all diſputes about their continuance in office ſhould at this criſis be ſuſpended, as public diviſions might promote the ſucceſs of the foe. After a variety of other remarks, the orator expreſſed his hope, that, amidſt the warlike preparations, the cabinet would not abandon the idea of accelerating a peace, as the ſtate might otherwiſe be brought to the verge of ruin by the accumulation of intolerable burthens. He did not, however, wiſh it to be underſtood, that he had any thought of recommending a negotiation, if the French ſhould effect a landing in this iſland. That would be an humiliation which would break the ſpirit of the country.—He afterwards referred to the conduct of the ſeceders from the whig party, who wiſhed the world to believe that they were ſolely actuated by a deſire of promoting the cauſe of religion, morality, and civil order, though he was inclined to think that their deſertion of their former confederates aroſe from motives of ambition and ſelf-intereſt. It was incumbent on thoſe gentlemen, he ſaid, to atone for the injury which their ſeceſſion,

by making a breach in the confidence of the people, had inflicted on public ſpirit, by diſplaying extraordinary zeal in the defence of the nation, and making a liberal ſacrifice of thoſe emoluments which they had been ſo eager to procure. —With regard to himſelf, as it would perhaps be ſuppoſed that he was ſtimulated by intereſted motives to give his ſupport to the miniſtry on this occaſion, he could affirm with truth, that he had no ſuch views, but was merely influenced by a ſenſe of the peril to which his country was expoſed; and he would openly declare, that his political enmity was irreconcilable to the preſent miniſters, and that he ſtill cheriſhed an ardent deſire of the accompliſhment of a parliamentary reform, and of the redreſs of various grievances, of which the public had reaſon to complain.—Adverting to the report of a correſpondence between the enemy and ſome Britiſh ſubjects, he hoped that the miniſters did not expect him to credit the aſſertion before it ſhould have been proved; and he thought that the ſuſpenſion of any conſtitutional law upon this pretext would damp the riſing ſpirit of the people.

The chancellor of the exchequer was pleaſed to find, that Mr. Sheridan had ſo far altered his opinion reſpecting the conduct which our government ought to obſerve, as to agree with the majority of the houſe in aſſerting the neceſſity of reſiſting the arms of France: but, after complimenting the public ſpirit of that gentleman, he ſaid, in a high and contemptuous tone, that the nation, being almoſt unanimous before, did not require any additional *ſtimulus* from the newly diſcovered zeal of the former oppoſers of the war.

The addreſs being quickly voted, the commons were deſired by the peers to concur in a bill for ſuſpending the *habeas-corpus* act. To this requeſt, after ſome oppoſition from Mr. Sheridan, the houſe agreed; and the term of ſuſpenſion was fixed for the 1ſt of February, 1799.

Notwithſtanding the great preparations of our enemies, it is probable that they will not attempt the threatened invaſion. Their purpoſe ſeems to be ſufficiently anſwered by that alarm which haraſſes our countrymen with military parade and fatigue, and operates to the enormous increaſe of national burthens.

Some notice muſt now be taken of the proceedings of the miniſtry againſt thoſe who were ſuſpected of ſeditious or treaſonable views. Early in March, Mr. Arthur O'Con-

nor, and four other perſons who had been ſeiſed at Margate, were examined before the privy council, on the charge of correſponding with the enemy. The examiners being of opinion that the grounds of ſuſpicion were ſufficiently ſtrong to authoriſe the trial of the ſuppoſed offenders, O'Connor and three of his aſſociates were ſent to the Tower, while the other was committed to the houſe of correction or penitentiary houſe for Middleſex; and it was reſolved that they ſhould be tried by ſpecial commiſſion at Maidſtone. At that town, on the 11th of April, Sir Francis Buller addreſſed the grand jury on the ſubject. He expatiated on the bleſſings of our conſtitution, reprobated the eagerneſs of political innovation, and developed the laws of treaſon. A bill of indictment for high treaſon was ſoon after found againſt the priſoners; but, to give full time for preparation, the arraignment was poſtponed to the 30th. On that day, a formal objection relative to the copies of the indictment being ſtated on behalf of the priſoners, who were alſo unprepared for their defence, the court conſented to a delay of the trials.

Many other perſons were apprehended as mal-contents; and, while ſome were releaſed, others were committed to different places of confinement. Several of theſe obnoxious individuals were leading members of the London correſponding ſociety.

Amidſt theſe exertions of the vigilance of adminiſtration, the noiſe of warlike preparation reſounded through the kingdom. In every county, aſſociations of volunteers were formed. In the capital, each ward began to form an armed *corps;* leſs, however, with a view to the defence of the country againſt a foreign enemy, than to the ſuppreſſion of any diſturbances which might be excited by the populace.

Few inſtances of important naval ſucceſs occurred during this period. The veſſels which were occaſionally taken were in general ſmall; but the Gazette did not fail to announce even the capture of a ſingle brig or a ſmall privateer, that the applauſe of a grateful nation might be beſtowed on the officers and ſeamen who achieved theſe *memorable exploits.*

The conflict between the Mars and l'Hercule, a ſhip of 74 guns, may be thought deſerving of mention. The captain of the latter veſſel endeavoured to eſcape through the paſſage du Raz, near the coaſt of Bretagne: but, the wind and tide proving adverſe, he was conſtrained to caſt anchor.

The commander of the Mars (Alexander Hood), having thus met with an opportunity of exertion, attacked l'Hercule (on the 21ſt of April) with great ſpirit, by 'laying her ſo cloſe along-ſide (to uſe the nautical expreſſions of lieutenant Butterfield) as to unhinge ſome of the lower-deck ports.' The engagement was maintained for about an hour and a half; and, near the cloſe of it, the Britiſh captain received a wound in the thigh, of which he expired ſoon after the French ſhip had ſurrendered. He was an active and gallant officer, and is ſaid to have been highly popular among the ſeamen.

IRELAND.

It is with painful ſenſations that we enter upon the taſk of ſurveying the affairs of Ireland. The diſorders in which that country is involved are of the moſt alarming nature; and, though the accounts given by the partiſans and the oppoſers of the court are not exactly concordant, we have reaſon to believe, that the ſyſtem of coercion which is now exerciſed will not be finally ſucceſsful, but will only aggravate the evils which it is intended to remedy.

When the Hibernian parliament aſſembled on the 15th of January, the lord-lieutenant, among other intimations, ſtated, 'that he had directed vigorous meaſures to be taken for repreſſing diſaffection in the northern parts of the kingdom, and for reſtoring ſecurity and confidence to the loyal and well-diſpoſed;' and that a good effect had followed theſe exertions. He was ſorry to obſerve, however, that the mal-contents in the midland and ſouthern diſtricts had ſince endeavoured, not without ſucceſs, to 'revive religious animoſities, and to open proſpects of plunder' to the lower claſſes; and that 'the diligence and activity of the magiſtrates, though aſſiſted by the troops, had not yet been able entirely to put a ſtop to the diſturbances.' On the contrary, the diſturbances became more dangerous, from the irritation and reſentment produced by military violence.

The ſupplies for the preſent year were voted in February, to the amount of 4,194,000 pounds. Above one-half of this ſum was propoſed to be raiſed by a loan; and, to provide for the intereſt, new impoſts were eſtabliſhed, for the annual produce of about 401,000 pounds.

In the ſame month, the earl of Moira harangued the peers of his native country in recommendation of conciliatory meaſures. He reprobated in ſtrong terms the conduct of

the government, in making the army the inſtrument of a deſpotic and inhuman ſyſtem of oppreſſion and vengeance; and expoſed the folly and abſurdity of thoſe who expected to reſtore, by ſuch proceedings, the tranquillity of the kingdom. Nothing but conceſſion, he was convinced, would be effectual for that purpoſe; and, if it ſhould be long delayed, he could not anſwer for the preſervation of Ireland. Beſides the general propriety and humanity of moderation, there was a ſtrong motive of policy which ought now to operate, as the continuance of diviſions tended to animate the hopes and ſtimulate the exertions of the French. He concluded with moving, that the houſe ſhould addreſs the lord lieutenant for the adoption of ſuch meaſures as might 'allay the apprehenſions and extinguiſh the diſcontents' of the people. Lord Glentworth defended the conduct of the miniſtry; but the chief vindicator of the ſyſtem was the earl of Clare, chancellor of the realm, who alleged the inutility of conceſſions, repreſented the United Iriſhmen as traitors who were leagued with the French, and affirmed, that coercion alone could prevent the efficacy of their atrocious purpoſes. On a diviſion, the votes for the motion appeared to be only 10, while the miniſterial ſuffrages amounted to 45.

Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who had been appointed commander in chief in Ireland, was more inclined to adopt the ſentiments of the earl of Moira and other advocates of moderation, than to ſubject the country to military government. He therefore required that all his officers ſhould pay the ſtricteſt attention to the 'diſcipline, good order, and conduct of their men,' and prohibited them from acting without the preſence and authority of the civil magiſtrate. But theſe orders did not meet with the approbation of the miniſtry.

In the progreſs of the conteſt between the diſcontented party and the troops, the conduct of the former was declared to be open rebellion by the lord lieutenant and the privy council; and the moſt direct and poſitive orders were given to the army, to act 'with the utmoſt vigor and deciſion,' and to diſarm the rebels, and all diſaffected perſons 'by the moſt ſummary and effectual meaſures.' But theſe meaſures have not been attended with ſucceſs; and, from our own reflexion, as well as the converſation of perſons intimately acquainted with the affairs of Ireland, we are firmly of opinion, that complete tranquillity will not be re-eſtabliſhed in

that kingdom, unleſs the chief demands of the catholics and proteſtants ſhould be granted; for, though ſuch conceſſions will not ſatisfy ſuch of the Iriſh as may wiſh for a new government on the French model, the removal of the diſcontent of the majority of the people would render the democratic party too weak to diſturb the peace of the realm.

FRANCE.

The enmity of the French againſt the Engliſh government, embittered by a long courſe of what they deemed unprovoked hoſtility, continued to diſplay itſelf in haughty menaces and acrimonious obloquy; and, to increaſe the animoſity of the people, calumnious accounts of the treatment received by the French priſoners in England, and other groſs miſrepreſentations, were ſtudiouſly propagated.

Still holding out the terrors of an invaſion, the legiſlature decreed, that the diſcuſſion of different points relative to the marine and the army of England (for the fleet and army oſtenſibly provided for the deſcent in Great Britain were ſo called) ſhould be the grand order of the day, and ſhould have priority over all other deliberations. A great number of regiments, both of horſe and foot, were detached towards the coaſts; and naval preparations were promoted with apparent zeal.

In the mean time it was thought neceſſary to ſend troops againſt Lyons, as the tranquillity of that part of France was again diſturbed. It was declared by the directory, on the 2d of February, that the anti-republican ſpirit, evinced in the commune of Lyons, endangered the perſons of the officers of government, obſtructed the courſe of juſtice, and threatened the worſt conſequences, unleſs ſeaſonable remedies ſhould be applied to the diſorder. That commune and its ſuburbs were therefore put, by a decree, in a ſtate of ſiege. Beziers and other towns were expoſed to the ſame calamity. It was found leſs difficult to check the mal-contents in thoſe towns, than to ſuppreſs the inſurrection which prevailed in Corſica; an ill-fated iſland, which, for a long courſe of years, has not been free from commotion.

Thoſe who reluctantly ſubmitted to the tyranny of the

directory flattered themſelves with the hopes of a returning predominance of the legiſlative aſſemblies over the executive body, from the effect of the elections which were to take place in the ſpring. The directorial leaders, however, hoped to ſtrengthen their intereſt by means of the new members; and their agents were actively employed in influencing the elections. In the council of five hundred, Bailleul expreſſed his apprehenſions of the intrigues of the enemies of the conſtitution, and obſerved, that vigilance at this time was particularly neceſſary. A proclamation was publiſhed by the directory, in recommendation of a *prudent choice* of the new third — that is, in favour of ſtrong republicans. In another addreſs, the people were deſired to recollect, that the legiſlative body had a right to judge of the operations of the electoral aſſemblies; and it was added, that, as the traitors who diſgraced the national repreſentation in the preceding year had been driven from the two councils, perſons of a ſimilar ſtamp, who ſhould be choſen in this year, would alſo be deprived of their ſeats. This interference was irregular, and was an arbitrary encroachment on the rights of electors. Warm conteſts attended ſome of the elections; but we are informed, that the friends of the ruling party were moſt ſucceſsful in the reſult.

When the agitations attendant on the elections had ſubſided, and when the menace of ſending over an army to England on rafts of a curious conſtruction had loſt its novelty, ſome intelligence from Germany furniſhed a new topic of converſation. General Bernadotte, the French ambaſſador at Vienna, having invited his friends to an entertainment, thought proper to make a diſplay of the tri-colored flag in the front of his hotel. The ſight of this republican enſign arouſed the indignation of the inhabitants of the city; and the ambaſſador was requeſted to order its removal. His refuſal inflamed the populace to action; the flag was torn down and deſtroyed; and ſome miſchief was done to the hotel. A body of ſoldiers, however, at length checked the licentiouſneſs of the rioters. Bernadotte inſiſted upon high terms of reparation; and, as the emperor was unwilling to accede to them, the ambaſſador retired to Raſtadt in diſguſt. This miſunderſtanding has not yet been adjuſted; and it is the hope of many that it may induce his imperial majeſty to renew the war rather than make the de-

ſired reparation. It is not, however, probable that he will be ſo imprudent as to recur to that hazardous extremity.

The moſt important events and tranſactions, in which the French armies were concerned during this period, took place in Switzerland and in Italy; and they will fall under our notice in our ſurvey of the recent hiſtory of thoſe countries.

HOLLAND.

The Hollanders, in general, were not inclined to adopt the ſyſtem recommended by the adherents of the violent French party. But the daring ſpirit of the latter at length prevailed over the moderation of the majority. After ſecret conſultations, it was reſolved that an attempt ſhould be made to ſecure the leaders of the moderate party. On the 22d of January the conſpirators, ſupported by a *corps* of the national guard, and a detachment of the troops in pay, aſſembled under the auſpices of Midderich, who had been choſen preſident of the convention, and ordered the arreſt of ſix members of the committee for foreign affairs. They afterwards repaired to the national hall, where, by the influence of terror, they procured a majority of votes for the expulſion of twenty-one members of the aſſembly. An oath of hatred to the ſtadtholderate, to ariſtocracy and tyranny, was now impoſed: the provincial and departmental authorities were annulled: an executive directory was appointed; and other decrees, dictated by the party which had thus gained the aſcendency, were readily ſanctioned. M. de-la-Croix, the French miniſter at the Hague, affected to be merely a calm obſerver of this change of ſyſtem; but there is no doubt of his having had the chief concern in the production of it.

At a ſubſequent meeting of the convention (or, as it was ſtyled by the new rulers, the conſtituent aſſembly), the preſident intimated, that he had received letters from Van Meerdervoort, Sloone, and twenty-one other repreſentatives, who, alleging that ſome of the late regulations were repugnant to their ideas of the foundation upon which the Batavian ſenate had been convoked, declined to aſſiſt at the deliberations.

In a proclamation which the aſſembly now iſſued, the late proceedings were not merely juſtified, but were repreſented as worthy of the higheſt praiſe; and the perſons who had promoted the change were applauded as the deliverers of their countrymen from the danger of falling under the ſevereſt yoke of ſervitude. The chiefs of the vanquiſhed party were repreſented as the friends of the exiled ſtadtholder and of the court of London, and as the advocates of the moſt pernicious ſyſtem of abuſe and grievance. The people were exhorted to give their cordial ſupport to the patriots, by whom their cauſe had been ſo boldly eſpouſed; and a perſevering attention to their welfare was promiſed. They were aſſured that a wiſe and juſt conſtitution would ſoon be provided for them; a conſtitution which would ſecure them in the enjoyment of every degree of liberty that a rational being could deſire. Such was the language with which the party endeavoured to delude the people; but it could only deceive the weak and unreflecting.

A new conſtitution was quickly framed for the Batavian ſtate, on the model of that of France; and the *great nation*, as it is now called by its allies, thus obtained a complete victory over the independence of Holland; a victory which the French, in point of trade and in other reſpects, have uſed to the diſadvantage of the Engliſh.

GERMANY.

The deliberations of the congreſs of Raſtadt have not yet been deciſive. The French, however, ſeem to have it in their power to bring them to a cloſe whenever they deem it expedient.

Diſputes occurred in January with reſpect to the powers which had been granted to the envoys; but theſe differences were amicably adjuſted. Proceeding to more eſſential buſineſs, the French plenipotentiaries (Treilhard and Bonnier) propoſed, that the Rhine ſhould form the boundary of the republic. The deputies of the empire remonſtrated againſt this demand, as inconſiſtent with the preliminaries ſigned at Leoben; but the Gallic envoys replied, that, as the imperial body was not even a party in the agreement alluded to, it had no right to inſiſt upon any of the terms then ſti-

pulated, particularly as they were merely proviſional; and that the ſafety of the republic, and even the tranquillity of the empire, forcibly required ſuch a demarcation. As the French would not recede from their requiſition, the German princes were conſtrained to acquieſce; and the left bank of the Rhine was ceded to France.

To ſtrengthen their influence over the ſtates of the empire, the French had added, to the ſeiſure of Mentz, other encroachments on the territories of that body. Of theſe unjuſtifiable acts the deputies ventured to complain; but redreſs was not granted.

The ſeculariſation of the eccleſiaſtical principalities formed a ſubject of great debate; but that propoſition was at length admitted as the baſis of indemnity to the German princes.

SWITZERLAND.

The intrigues and the example of France were long inefficacious, when oppoſed by the wiſdom and firmneſs of the Swiſs. But the diviſions among the cantons obſtructed the views of thoſe patriots who wiſhed to ſecure the independence of the Helvetic body.

The inhabitants of the canton of Baſle, eager to reſcue themſelves from an ariſtocratic yoke, reſolved to aſcertain, by experiment, the advantages of democracy. They boldly avowed their deſire of a change; and, though many of the citizens of Baſle reſiſted the propoſal, the ſpirited meaſures of the greater part of the canton produced a revolution.

In the Pays de Vaud, a democratic zeal was alſo prevalent. The rulers of Berne endeavoured to check this ardor, which, on the other hand, the French promoted. The former, finding exhortations fruitleſs, ſent a body of militia to reclaim the Vaudois to ſubmiſſion; and, as the canton of Fribourg was intereſted in the ſame cauſe, from its participation of authority with that of Berne over the diſtrict in queſtion, the troops of both were put under the command of M. de Weiſs, to obſtruct all attempts of the French for the ſeizure of the territory. Menard, who commanded a French army in the neighbourhood, peremptorily de-

ſired de Weiſs to withdraw his troops, and leave the Vaudois in the free enjoyment of their rights. An officer being ſent with this meſſage, two huſſars who attended him were killed by a party of Swiſs. The next day (the 28th of January), the French general entered the Pays de Vaud, on pretence of taking vengeance for this outrage. He was received by the inhabitants with open arms; and de Weiſs haſtily retired from the diſtrict.

The grand council of Berne, ſenſible of the danger to which the ſtate was expoſed, made preparations for a vigorous defence. A conſiderable army was levied; and martial enthuſiaſm ſeemed to pervade the canton. Negotiation, in the mean time, was not wholly neglected; but it did not promiſe ſucceſs, as the imperious demands of the French, relative to a change of government, diſguſted the council. The rulers of ſeveral other cantons profeſſed the ſame reluctance to a change dictated by a foreign power; but they were not unwilling, or rather they were conſtrained by the wiſhes of the people, to render their reſpective governments more democratic. At Zurich, a remarkable oath was taken for that purpoſe. It imported, that, without the intervention of foreign powers, a conſtitution ſhould be eſtabliſhed, which ſhould have for its baſis religion and virtue, ſhould lay the foundation of liberty and equality upon the rights of the ſtate and of citizens, and ſhould aſſert the ſovereignty of the people.

All negotiation being fruitleſs, the Swiſs could not prevent an invaſion of their territories. On the 1ſt of March, general Schauenburg attacked Soleure, and enforced the ſurrender of that city. Pigeon, at the head of another diviſion, appeared before Fribourg; and, having taken the town by aſſault, he ſubſtituted a proviſional democracy for the ariſtocratic government. On the 5th, he engaged the Swiſs (chiefly the troops of Berne) at the paſſage of Nevenech. They made a very gallant reſiſtance; but, being totally defeated, they were purſued to the gates of Berne; and that town was taken by capitulation. On this occaſion, many females acted as combatants, and diſplayed a degree of courage which would have reflected honor even on male veterans. M. d'Erlach, the Swiſs general, retired with his vanquiſhed troops towards Lucerne; and, when other ſucceſſes had attended the arms of the invaders, it

became expedient for all the cantons to ſubmit to the violence of the torrent.

The victors now prepared to impoſe a new conſtitution on the unfortunate Swiſs, whom they alſo plundered for the maintenance of their army. Some commotions occurred in different parts of the country; but they were quickly ſuppreſſed; and the French yoke muſt be borne by the inhabitants, till an opportunity ſhall ariſe (which their love of freedom will render them eager to embrace) for a more ſucceſsful exertion of that valor which they inherit from their renowned anceſtors.

The fate of Switzerland, in being thus oppreſſed by a haughty foe, cannot but excite the commiſeration of the friends of order and humanity. The neutrality of the cantons would have ſecured to them the reſpect of a generous enemy: but the French are now ſo elate with a long courſe of ſucceſs, that they will not ſuffer even neutral powers to be at reſt, unleſs they conſent to democratic regulations of government.

By French influence, a repreſentative aſſembly was formed for the Helvetic republic; and five members of an executive directory were appointed. Other changes were made, which would not have been very unpleaſing to the Swiſs, if a foreign nation had not dictated the terms.

SPAIN and PORTUGAL.

The French not having accepted the ſubmiſſions of the court of Liſbon, Portugal cannot be ſaid to be out of danger. General Augereau is ſtationed with an army near the frontiers of Spain; but whether orders will ſoon be ſent to him to paſs through that kingdom to attack the Portugueſe realm, is uncertain. It appears, that the king of Spain has, though not without reluctance, granted permiſſion for that purpoſe. It would be dangerous for him to be refractory in any point upon which his domineering allies inſiſt.

ITALY.

In our laſt report relative to the affairs of Italy, we hinted at the dangerous predicament in which the pope ſtood.

We had no reaſon to think that he would long retain any portion of temporal authority: it was rather a matter of ſurpriſe that his power had not before been annihilated.

The mal-contents of Rome, inflamed with the *furor* of republicaniſm, put themſelves in motion near the cloſe of the preceding year, and peremptorily demanded a change of government. Joſeph Buonaparte, the French ambaſſador (brother of the general), affected to diſcourage the attempts of the people; and, while they were engaged with the troops of his holineſs, Duphot and Sherlock, two officers of rank, interfered for the prevention of ulterior conflict, as the contending parties were then within the precincts allotted to the French miniſter. Having ventured too far, Duphot was killed by the papal ſoldiers; an outrage which ſo incenſed Buonaparte, that he abruptly retired from the territories of the church.

Denunciations of vengeance were fulminated againſt the court of Rome; and general Berthier was commiſſioned to put thoſe menaces in execution. The pope now ſolicited aid from the king of Naples; but this prince was apprehenſive that his compliance, beſides being uſeleſs to the pontiff, would expoſe his own dominions to the chance of war or the hazard of a revolution.

The ſubverſion of the papal power was an eaſy taſk. Berthier, receiving little moleſtation in his march, reached the environs of Rome. While he remained in the ſuburbs, the inhabitants (on the 15th of February) planted the tree of liberty in different parts of the city, and proclaimed with ſhouts of joy the revival of the Roman republic. They gave notice of this change to the French general, and invited him to give it his ſanction. He immediately entered the city with a part of his army, and engaged to ſupport the determination of the people. In a laconic epiſtle, he informed the directory, that 'the French army had rendered due homage at the Capitol to the *manes* of the great men of ancient Rome; that the Roman people had reſumed thoſe rights which had been wreſted from them, and had requeſted the protection of the French republic; and that Rome was now *free.*'

In the public act which provided for the reſumption of ſovereignty by the people, it was declared, that they had

long wiſhed to reſcue themſelves from the oppreſſions of prieſtly ſway, but that they had been reſtrained from the attempt by want of opportunity; that at length the government had become ſo weak as to fall of itſelf; that the ill effects of this diſſolution could only be obviated by firmneſs and union; that it was expedient to make choice of popular repreſentatives, who might erect a ſyſtem of liberty and juſtice; and that conſuls ſhould be appointed for the executive branch of government.

Seven conſuls were nominated; a municipality and civic guard were organiſed; and preparations were made for the election of members of a national aſſembly. Titles of nobility and orders of knighthood were ſuppreſſed; and other old uſages and eſtabliſhments were aboliſhed. Having witneſſed the extinction of his authority, the aged pontiff, on the 20th of February, retired from Rome into the Tuſcan territories.

The ruin of the papal power, which, ſome centuries ago, would have been conſidered as an event of the greateſt importance, is ſcarcely thought worthy of notice in the preſent times. The flight of the pontiff from the ſeat of his power is coolly mentioned, as if it were an ordinary and trivial circumſtance; and the erection of a new republic in the ancient metropolis of the Roman world, is an incident almoſt unregarded. But the philoſophic mind will dwell on theſe events, trace the origin and progreſſive corruption of the popiſh ſyſtem, refer to the miſchiefs, as well as to the advantages, which it produced, and will conſider how far the change in queſtion is likely to affect the intereſts of true religion, regular polity, and ſocial order. As ſuch ſpeculations, however, would lead us into too wide a field, we proceed to a review of the affairs of other parts of Italy.

The ſovereign of Tuſcany obſerved with diſpleaſure the inſtitution of the new republic, and dreaded the ſpeedy effects of democratic example. His ſituation is undoubtedly precarious. He is not on the moſt amicable terms with the rulers of the Cis-Alpine commonwealth; and, if they ſhould procure the co-operation of the Roman republic, he may, without difficulty, be diſpoſſeſſed of his duchy, particularly as a great proportion of his ſubjects are not unfriendly to a change of ſyſtem.

The council of elders of the Cis-Alpine republic having ventured to oppoſe the wiſhes of the Pariſian directory, by refuſing to ratify a treaty of commerce and alliance which had been concluded with France, orders were given for ſuperſeding and arreſting twenty-one members of the aſſembly. This meaſure ſubdued the oppoſition of the council.

Though the troops of this ſtate aſſiſted in the expedition to Rome, and will probably be employed by the French on other occaſions, the latter ſeem to be jealous of the enterpriſing and ambitious ſpirit which the former have diſplayed. This jealouſy does not eſcape the penetration of thoſe who are the objects of it; and it will give them a diſguſt for the founders of their republic.

In the chief ports of the Ligurian commonwealth, veſſels have been lately equipped for the augmentation of the French fleet at Toulon. With regard to the deſtination of this armament, various conjectures have been formed. Some have ſuppoſed that it is intended for the Levant, the French having in view the eſtabliſhment of a colony in Egypt, chiefly for commercial purpoſes: others have thought that it would be ſent to complete the conqueſt of Italy; but it is not improbable that it will be employed againſt Portugal, in concert with a Spaniſh fleet.

In the Piedmonteſe territories, occaſional inſurrections haraſs the government. The royaliſts generally gain the advantage in the field; but the mal-contents, who are encouraged by the Genoeſe, find means to prevent the deciſive triumph of their adverſaries.

TURKEY.

The Ottoman empire is ſtill endangered by rebellion. The pacha of Widin, far from being inclined to ſubmiſſion, boldly perſiſts in a revolt which fills the Porte with conſternation. He has made himſelf maſter of ſeveral towns and fortreſſes, and has obtained, for a conſiderable ſpace, the command of the Danube. He conducts his operations with judgment, and baffles all the attempts of thoſe provincial governors who are attached to the ſultan. He has not, however, been able to reduce Belgrade, the capture of which would add a luſtre to his arms. He em-

ploys emiſſaries to ſtimulate the Greeks to a revolt; but it is more probable that they will wait till the French are ready to eſpouſe their cauſe, than unite with Turkiſh inſurgents. The new poſſeſſors of Corfu are encroaching on the province of Albania; and they will not, we think, long be content with a ſmall tract in that part of Europe, though they are, at preſent, on terms of apparent amity with the court of Conſtantinople.

RUSSIA.

The northern emperor ſeems to be wholly unmoved by the convulſions of Europe. He is not, perhaps, aware of the effect which the approaching changes in Germany may have on the tranquillity of his dominions: but there is little doubt that the conſequences of the aggrandiſement and influence of the French will extend even to the Frozen Ocean.

The liberality of Paul to the titular king of France merits our applauſe. He has gratified the royal exile with a handſome allowance; and his bounty is alſo ſhared by the prince of Condé and other emigrants. He has even taken into his pay the army which that prince has long commanded.

The *ci-devant* king of Poland died lately in his Ruſſian aſylum. He was a prince of conſiderable talents and accompliſhments; and was attached to the purſuits of literature and ſcience. Though he was not a profound ſtatesman, he was not altogether deficient in political wiſdom; and his general aim was to render his people contented and happy.

NORTH-AMERICA.

The negotiations between the American and French republics have excited ſo much attention, that our readers will not be diſpleaſed if we enter into ſome detail upon the ſubject.

An important meſſage from the preſident of the United States, was communicated, on the 19th of March, to the two legiſlative aſſemblies. The ſubſtance of it may thus

be ſtated. Though the exertions of the American envoys for the adjuſtment of all differences were ſincere and unremitted, there was no ground of expectation that the objects of their miſſion would be accompliſhed on terms compatible with the honor or ſafety of the nation. It was therefore neceſſary, that the two councils ſhould adopt ſuch meaſures as would tend to the protection of ſeafaring and trading citizens, to the increaſe of the ſtores of war, and the defence of expoſed portions of territory; and ſhould provide ſupplies for defraying extraordinary expences, and compenſating the deficiencies which might be occaſioned by depredations on commerce. They were particularly conjured by the preſident to manifeſt, in all their proceedings, ſuch zeal, vigor, and concert, in defence of the national rights, as might be proportioned to the danger with which thoſe rights were threatened.

At the deſire of the houſe of repreſentatives, the preſident ſubmitted the diſpatches of the envoys to the inſpection of the legiſlative body. The contents of theſe papers are curious.

From theſe documents it appears, that general Pinckney and his diplomatic aſſociates (Marſhall and Gerry) were treated, on their arrival at Paris *, with great diſreſpect; that ſome obſervations made by the preſident † in a ſpeech to the congreſs had given offence to the directory ‡; and that an apologetic explanation was demanded, as a preliminary to negotiatory conferences. The perſon who intimated this demand, added, that a ſum of money would be neceſſary to ſecure a favorable reception from the directory, and that a conſiderable loan would alſo be expedient. Another agent, the

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* In October, 1797. † In May, 1797.

‡ The remarks that diſpleaſed the French were thoſe which referred to the aggreſſions committed by them, and which were followed by a ſpirited exhortation to the congreſs: 'ſuch attempts (ſaid the preſident) ought to be repelled with a deciſion which ſhall convince France and the world, that we are not a degraded people, humiliated under a colonial ſenſe of fear, fitted to be the miſerable inſtruments of foreign influence, and regardleſs of national honor, character, and intereſt.'

confidential friend of the miniſter Talleyrand, informed the envoys, that, when an explicit apology ſhould have been made, the French republic would prepare for the completion of a treaty which ſhould place the two ſtates in the ſame predicament with regard to each other, in which they ſtood in the year 1778; or, in other words, a treaty which would allow the French the ſame advantages that were enjoyed by the Engliſh in their trade with the ſubjects of the United States; but that an eſſential part of the agreement would be the advance of money. This loan, he obſerved, might be ſo diſguiſed, that the Britiſh court, which might otherwiſe conſider it as a breach of neutrality, would not be offended. When he was aſked whether the directory might not be induced to recede from the demand of an apology, he replied, that he knew only of one mode of application which would tempt them to wave it—that was, the offer of money. The ſpirit of ſordid rapacity which was thus exhibited, diſguſted the envoys; and, having expreſſed their ſurpriſe at ſuch demands, they requeſted time for conſulting their employers, promiſing, that, if the French would deſiſt from all captures of American ſhips, one of the three ſhould make an immediate voyage for additional inſtructions. The agent was diſſatisfied with this propoſal; and, reverting to the requiſition of an apology, he deſired to know whether the miniſters were ready to comply. They anſwered, that they had no power to invalidate any part of the preſident's ſpeech; that ſuch an attempt would expoſe them to the riſque of recall; and that, even if they ſhould diſavow the offenſive paſſages, the public opinion reſpecting the truth of the imputations would ſtill remain the ſame.

The former of the two agents, in an interview which took place ſoon after the ſignature of the definitive treaty with the emperor, affirmed, that the directory had, ſince that peace, aſſumed a higher and more deciſive tone towards neutral powers than had before been uſed, and intended to treat as enemies all nations which ſhould refuſe to aſſiſt the French. He therefore urged the expediency of ſubmiſſion; but Mr. Pinckney declared that he could not acquieſce; and that if the French ſhould attack his countrymen, they would have recourſe to the beſt means of ſelf-defence. The agent now renewed the demand of pecu-

niary advances; and he did not ſcruple to ſay, that the rulers of France had no regard to juſtice, and that money alone could influence them. The envoys ſtill reſiſted; and, when the Frenchman warned them of the danger of refuſal, and boaſted of the power of his country, they replied that they were fully ſenſible of thoſe points, and wiſhed to be on friendly terms with the nation; but that America would not purchaſe the friendſhip of any ſtate by a ſurrender of her independence; that ſhe had a right to be neutral; that to advance money for the uſe of a belligerent power would be to deviate from her neutrality; that to agree to ſuch a loan, 'under the laſh and coercion of France, would be to relinquiſh the government of herſelf, and ſubmit to a foreign government, impoſed by force;' and that, if ſhe ſhould tamely ſuffer her rights to be invaded, her reputation would be irretrievably loſt.

A private conference ſoon followed between Mr. Gerry and M. Talleyrand. The French miniſter propoſed, that 50,000 pounds ſterling ſhould be given without delay by way of *douceur*; and that one of the envoys ſhould return to America to procure the aſſent of the congreſs to a loan: but he declared, that, in the mean time, the directory would not receive the two other miniſters, and that the commercial depredations were not to be diſcontinued. This arrogant and domineering behaviour could not be expected to prove ſucceſsful.

The friend of Talleyrand afterwards made an attempt which he termed 'a laſt effort to *ſerve*' the envoys, though it tended to the enforcement of ignominious terms. He called their attention to the ſituation of the United States, and to the power of France. He hoped that they would not deceive themſelves with the idea of a full ability of reſiſtance, on the part of their countrymen, but would reflect on the fate of Venice, which might ſoon be that of the American republic. They might perhaps truſt, he ſaid, to the probability of a league with Great-Britain; but ſuch confidence would be fallacious. An army of 150,000 men, commanded by the gallant and able Buonaparte, might be enabled to invade this iſland; in which event, a complete conqueſt would enſue: or, if the invaſion ſhould not take place, the alarm which the menace of a deſcent would diffuſe through the realm, would occaſion ſuch enormous expences as would drive

the miniſtry into a peace. But, even if the Engliſh ſhould be able to continue the war, and the Americans ſhould join them, they would not have any opportunities of inflicting much injury upon France. On the other hand, the advantages which the United States might derive from an acquieſcence in the deſires of the French, would be very conſiderable, and, in caſe of the deſtruction of the Britiſh government, would be particularly great, as the wealth and arts of the Engliſh would paſs over to America.

The delegates of the congreſs were unmoved by theſe repreſentations, and diſdained the thoughts of ſubmiſſion. They replied, that the treatment received by the Americans from the French proved an ill return for that friendſhip of which the former had given unequivocal teſtimonies, at a time when the latter were threatened with ruin by a confederacy ſo powerful and ſo decidedly hoſtile, that it was even dangerous to be on terms of amity with them.

To a ſtate thus friendly, 'what (ſaid the envoys, in a ſtyle of manly, indignant, and juſt reproach) is the conduct and the language of France? Wherever our property can be found, ſhe ſeiſes it: unprovoked, ſhe determines to treat us as enemies; and our non-reſiſtance produces no diminution of hoſtility againſt us: ſhe abuſes and inſults our government, endeavours to weaken it in the eſtimation of the people, recalls her own miniſter, refuſes to receive our's; and, when extraordinary means are taken to make ſuch explanations as may remove miſunderſtandings, and ſuch alterations in the exiſting relations of the two countries as may tend to produce harmony, the envoys who bear theſe powers are not permitted to utter the amicable wiſhes of their country; but it is intimated to them, in the haughty ſtyle of a maſter, that, unleſs they will pay a ſum to which their reſources ſcarcely extend, the United States may expect, like Venice, to be eraſed from the liſt of nations; that France will annihilate the only free republic upon earth, and the only nation in the univerſe which has manifeſted for her a cordial friendſhip!' This ſhort ſtatement exhibits a ſtriking picture of French inſolence, ingratitude, and iniquity.

In this unſettled ſtate the negotiation remained during the winter. At length, the envoys being again deſired to declare, whether they would accept or reject the offered terms, Meſſrs. Pinckney and Marſhall choſe the latter part of the alternative. Their departure from France was the

conſequence of their refuſal; but Mr. Gerry, it is ſaid, has been permitted to remain. All parties muſt unite in condemning the conduct of the French on this occaſion. Diſguſting haughtineſs, unprincipled rapacity, and groſs injuſtice, mark their proceedings. The Americans, on the contrary, have teſtified a regard both to prudence and honor. They have ſtudiouſly labored to avoid a war; but, if they ſhould be driven to that extremity, they have both the ſpirit and the power to defend themſelves.

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